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Part I: Co-operation and Association

ARGENTINA.

MISCELLANEOUS NEWS.

1. — Work of the argentine forestry society. — From the treport presented at the general meeting, it appears that this important sociation again last year exerted very efficient action for the defence and rease of the national flora. Without counting the usual propaganda in half of reafforestation, various prizes have been offered for the best plantons of forest trees, fruit trees, olive trees etc; arbor day was celebrated with a greatest solemnity in the whole republic and 300,000 trees and 4,000 of seeds of various forest trees were planted. In addition to this, the kety intends to institute associations, in various centres of the interior lich will be affiliated to it and support it in its work. It is founding special nursery for forest trees, to facilitate the selection of the species it suited to the various latitudes. The society, finally, is preparing a for a forestry code.

(Summarised from the Nación, December, 1913).



2. — Cow testing associations. — As we have had occasion re than once to point out (1), livestock improvement has made great gress in Argentina in the last twenty years, especially owing to the ion of the Rural Society. The greatest care has been bestowed on the

i) See especially in the number of this Bulletin for October, 1913, the arricle: "Some alions of the Beonomic and Agricultural Progress of Argentina."

improvement of butchers' beasts, to which the cold storage system; giving continually increasing inportance, but this has in no way tended to discourage the scientific improvement of dairy cows, as the increase of the industry is considered one of the most effectual means for the extension of agriculture.

In recent years, there has been a movement in favour of cow tests societies, led by Dr. Pedro Bergès.

These associations, very widely spread, as we know, in the countriwhere the dairy industry has made the greatest progress, Denmark, Switze
land, Germany etc., are formed amongst the owners of cows, and the
object is to increase the production of milk and the percentage of butta
fat in it, and to diminish the cost price, by means of the selection as
scientific feeding of the cattle. For the purpose, the milk of each cowperiodically weighed and analysed and the food consumed by it is weighe
Hence the improvement or the loss in the case of each cow- can be measure

In Europe, it is generally the livestock improvers who found the societies on their own initiative: but in Argentina, where livestoc improvement presents special conditions and where the spirit of association is still weak (1), it was not easy for these associations to be formed by the producers themselves. Therefore appeal was made first of all the large butter factories of the country, which have the greate interest in the development of the cow testing societies. The butter manufacturers, who have various steam creameries in different district are always endeavouring to increase the amount of cream they treat, as to reduce the cost.

It is therefore entirely to their interest that the producers should supply the largest possible quantity of milk for the longest period of the year and that the milk should contain the largest possible percentage of butter fat: this can only be effected with the help of cow testing associations.

The manufacturers welcomed the proposal of contributing to the found ation of such institutions. In September, 1911, the "Germania" of Testing Association was constituted among the suppliers of milk to the Germania and Gunther creameries (district of Gral-Pinto, Province Buenos Aires), belonging to the River Plate Dairy Company Limited. The company places at the disposal of the society the creamery buildings applant, as well as the staff for the inspection of the livestock etc.

In 1912, also with the help of the River Plate Company, another sim

ar society was founded at Bell Ville (Province of Cordoba).

Encouraged by the success of these first experiments, the promotest the movement endeavoured to interest the public authorities in it. To Government of the Province of Buenos-Aires instructed Dr. Pedro Bo gès to found three societies of the kind.

The first was founded in December, 1912 at Estación Banchos (distrit of Graal-Paz), with the assistance of the local butter factory: the other to

⁽¹⁾ See in the number of this Bulletin for December, 1913, the article "The Ooft erative Movement in Argentine Agriculture."

March 1913, one at Estación Gardey (district of Taudil), the other Estación Monasterio (District of Chascomus), with the assistance of a steam creamery.

These societies are supported by Government: an expert belonging to

Department of Livestock Improvement and Agriculture must arrange the Managing Committee of the Society to inspect the members' the stalls, analyse their milk etc. Every month he must make a rest showing the results obtained. At the end of the year the members lirective certificates showing the milk yield and proportion of butter fat per w, as well as the description of each cow and the calves it is nourishing.

Not all the five societies are working regularly: the idea, however, staken root and circumstances are becoming more favourable for the indation of these institutions. They will not only be able to improve and welop the dairy industry in the country, but will be able to awake the int of association among the producers, urge them towards new forms of operation, such as the dairy societies and livestock improvement syntates which have given such good results in Europe.

As we have seen, the cow testing societies up to the present formed in

gentina owe their origin not to the initiative and the capital of producers, trather to the initiative and capital of outside institutions, industrial cieties, namely, and the Government. But this is not, adds Bergès, a atter for serious reproach: even in countries in which private initiative and e spirit of association are very highly developed, and where there are ndreds of dairy societies, livestock improvement syndicates etc., the wernments grant the cow-testing societies important subsidies.

In Argentina, in view of the conditions in which dairying is carried on, a intervention of the State is for the present indispensable, if it is desired ensure the foundation and permanence of these institutions. In Europe a feeding of cattle is very costly; it is therefore clearly desirable to get rid the cows that consume more than they produce and not to give others urishment in excess of that scientifically shown to be necessary for their purements: hence the desirability of instituting a system of supervision or the production and of seeking out cows that give the largest quantity milk and butter fat and the nourishment of which costs least. In Argena the conditions are very different: generally a cow produces more than consumes. In contrast with the European custom, the cow is generally talued according to its certified yield of milk and butter, but accordion to the purity of its breed. In Argentina, observes Bergès, the only way obtaining real authority for the certificates is, at least in the first few ars, by an official system of testing.

This method, in addition to introducing scientific principles of improving ity cows, will raise the price of milk and thus many farmers will abandon improvement of butchers' beasts to devote themselves to that of dairy ws: in this way, the excessive slaughtering of cows and heifers, which astitutes a very serious danger for the national wealth in livestock, will put a stop to.

The writer we quote appeals to the Argentine Rural Society to combine with the Government Authorities for the extension, by means of assidem and single minded action, of the movement in behalf of the cow tests associations.

(Summarised from the Anales de la Sociedad Rural Argentina, Butter, November-December, 1913).



3. — A CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETY FOR THE SALE OF FRUIT. — $0_{\rm n}$ initiative of the Agricultural Department, a co-operative society for it sale of fruit has been founded at Cordoba. In view of the importance it production of fruit has for the province, the society will be able to develoconsiderably and be of great benefit alike to the farmers and the consumer

The association has a large building, which will be utilised for exhibition and shows for which the Government has offered numerous prize

(Summarised from the Gaceta Rural, Buenos-Aires, October, 1913).



4. — CO-OPERATIVE NURSERIES FOR FRUIT TREES. — The Engine Francisco Fernandez has dealt with this interesting type of association in an official report on the agriculture of the department of Monte Caseros. The region is situated in the extreme south east of the Province of Cornents and is 270,000 ha. in area. Besides that the Uruguay bounds it on the East, many other streams traverse it, making irrigation easy through the whole area.

Although livestock improvement still prevails here, the conditions of climate and soil make the department a favourable region for the cultivation of ligneous plants, such as vines, olives, limes, mandarin oranges and all other kinds of fruit trees. Up to the present, however, little or nothing has been done to profit by these resources and to cultivate ligneous plants on scientific principles, that is carefully to select the varieties, graft and prunt, fight diseases etc.

One of the most effectual means for cultivating fruit on a technically and economically sound system would be, according to the report, to institute a large number of nurseries: they, besides serving for the extensive diffusion of the selected varieties, would also serve as centres of experiment and instruction.

The nurseries might belong to the Government or be formed on a mixed system, by the co-operation of private persons with the State. In fact in the report it is proposed to found a kind of co-operative society, the members of which would be the General Department of Agricultural Education and the rural landowners, on the following basis:

Ist., The landowner to contribute an area, for 6 or 10 years, according to the locality, with the labourers, implements and livestock necessary for the work.

78d. The Agricultural Education Department to contribute the technical nagement, the seeds, plants, material for grafting and, when it judges fit. the agricultural implements and other farm necessaries.

The plants produced to be shared equally between the landowner the Agricultural Education Department. The share due to the latter he distributed among the farmers of the district gratuitously or at a e fixed in each case.

It seems the idea has been well received among the farmers and already ne of them have offered areas for the installation of co-operative nurss: the author of the report trusts that, with the extension of fruit farmthese institutions will have beneficial effects in the way of extending agriural education and the co-operative idea.

Summarised fom the Bulletin of the Agricultural Department, Buenos-Aires, October, 1913).



5. — Co-operative movement in the province of entre rios. As we e had occasion to observe already (r), Entre-Rios is one of the Argentine inces in which the co-operative idea is taking firmest root. Recently se-1 farmers of the Colony of Santa Anita, near Urquiza, have united to id a co-operative society for the collective sale of their produce. A representative of the society will be charged to receive the goods at various stations of the province and sell them. For the deposit of cereals, chouses will be leased in the railway stations themselves.

Settlements will be made ten days after the definite sale, and 10 % be deducted for expenses. No member may sell his produce to outsiders out special authorisation. The society may also give credit to mem-

. The interest on loans may not exceed 8 %.

(Summarised from the Gaceta Rural, Buenos-Aires, Jaunary, 1914).

¹⁾ See in the number of this Bulletin for December, 1913, the article "The Co-ope Movement in Argentine Agriculture."

AUSTRIA

THE DISTRICT OF TRENT, A MODEL CO-OPERATIVE DISTRIC (Continued).

§ 3. Co-operative land credit, distribution, production and SALE

A. - Co-operative Land Credit.

The first rural bank was founded in 1873 at Quadra (Guidicarie) on initiative of the founder of the first co-operative distributive society, highly respected Don L. Guetti. Since then co-operative credit has the very rapid progress.

The work of the rural banks consists in

- (a) granting loans;
- (b) receiving savings deposits, even of very small amounts;
- (c) encouraging the foundation of other co-operative consorting (for distribution, sale and production), granting loans for the purpose a opening credits.

TABLE V. - Situation of the Raiffeisen Banks.

Cratits.

Year	Number of Societies	Number of Members	Cash	Loans	Current Accounts	Counter Items	Total
1896(ª)	11	1,354	27,965.08	233,604.22			
1906	155	16,503	222,011.17	7,367,836.40	7,824,211.26	1,407,668.70	16,821,727
1910	160	21,707	219,472.14	9,916,183.51	14,214,857.88	3,686,644.15	28,037,157
1911	168	23,378	310,413.73	11,256,842.05	15,181,718.96	4,275,390.39	31,024,365.

⁽¹⁾ First year for which there are figures.

⁽¹⁾ We have to deal in one and the same section with Co-operative Land Credit, in Co-operative Distribution, Production and Sale, because the Contral Federation and Contral Bank conduct all these various kinds of co-operative business.

Debits.

		Current	Counter	Contril and Rese		
SI.	Savings	Accounts	Items	Contributions	Reserve Fund	Total
96 06 10	16,143 25,261,311.20	,984.88 ,083.22 ,02,019,570.85 ,2,416,212.57	9,099.44 80,405.14 130,410.80 279,743.37	328,2 72,520.46	553,344.37	603,379.80 16,821,727.53 28,037,157.68 31,024,365.13

On December 31st., 1912, the situation of the Federated Rural Banks s as follows:

1912

Revenue, Cash							
Expenditure. Cash							25,044,656
Savings Deposits						٠	37,783,257
Repayments Made				٠			8,908,787
Loans Granted			,			٠	15,165,347
Loans Repaid							3,301,809
Current Accounts: Debits,			•				28,986,967
Current Accounts: Credits.							14,870,566
Various Accounts: Debits.		,			,		5,857,859
Various Accounts: Credits.							2,445,242
Expenditure Account							234,961
Revenue »							352,185
Members' Contributions							79,113
Reserve Fund	٠						634,703
Number of Rural Banks .							169
Number of Members:							22,244

Number of Books in 1911 and 1912.

	1911	1912
(a) Savings	41,120	42,336
(b) Loans	15,847	15,944
(c) Credit Current Account	1,853	3,013
(d) Debit * *	216	324

The progress made by the Raiffeisen banks in the Trent District is saily seen from Table No. V; in 1896 there were 11 rural banks with 354 members; in 1912 there were 169 with 22,244 members. From the lance sheets we also see the progress made by these useful institutions the department of loans and in that of savings.

The value of the loans, which in 1896 was 233,600 crs., in 1906 had reported.

creased to 7,367,000 crs., and in 1912 to 11,863,538 crs.

The farmers at once availed themselves of the advantages offered the banks and had recourse to them for loans to extinguish others conditions of which were more burdensome. But much of this capa was used immediately for the improvement of agriculture and the scient improvement of livestock, and in this way considerably improved them nomic conditions of the country.

The savings deposits in 1896 made a total of 582,900 crs.; in 1996 they had increased to 16,143,000 crs. and in 1912 to 28,874,470 crs.

The credit current accounts also deserve special consideration; inm 336,900 crs. in 1896 they rose to 7,824,000 crs. in 1906 and to 14,116,401 m in 1912. For the most part, this amount represents the subventions is current account the rural banks give to other popular economic institute and especially to the co-operative distributive societies, the development which is especially to be attributed to the support they receive from the Rural Banks in this way.

The rate of interest in the Rural Banks is very low: on deposits it is between 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 4 %; on loans between 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 5 %. Although the lar allows of a margin of 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ %, practically it is reduced to 1 %, and with this the banks cover their working expenses and form a reserve fund to need possible losses. The chief item of expenditure is the salary of the cashe and bookkeeper; no other officers are paid.

In the rural banks the share capital is not important; the member are liable to the amount of their whole estate (unlimited liability), all equals and jointly and severally in respect to third persons, for the engagement entered into and on this ground share capital is not necessary; the applications of members for loans are met out of the savings deposits or loan obtained from a credit institute on the security of the joint and seven liability of members.

B. - Distributive Co-operation.

The first distributive Consortium was founded at S. Croce in Giudicare in 1890, under the name of Società co-operativa per acquisto e smercio di generi (Co-operative Society for Purchase and Sale of Goods), through the influence of Don L. Guetti. The object of this Consortium was collectively to provide the goods needed by the members to meet the requirements of their domestic and rural economy, at the most favourable price, distributing the goods among them in accordance with their needs, at cost price increased by a percentage charged for the cost of management and working.

In 1892 two other consortiums were founded, in 1893 five more; sint then the progress has been very rapid, so that in 1906 there were already 245 co-operative societies, which had increased to 250 in 1912 with more than 32,000 members.

From Table VI, which gives the situation of the distributive consortiums, we may learn the ultimate credit and debit balances at the end of each of the last financial years, from which it is evident that the economic

elopment of co-operative business has kept pace with the increase of the leties and members. The amount of cash in hand at the end of 1896 148,600 crs., at the end of 1906 it was 193,600 crs; in 1911 and 1912 it about 183,000 crs. The credits rose from 269,000 crs. in 1896 to 3,087,000 crs. god, and to 3,416,440 crs. in 1912; the goods account increased from 000 crs. in 1896 to 2,755,800 crs. in 1906 and to 3,579,328 crs. in 1912; personal estate and securities increased in amount from 61,000 crs. 896 to 1,326,300 crs. in 1906 and 1,530,493 crs. in 1912.

TABLE VI. — Situation of the Distributive Consortiums.

:BI	Number of Consortiums	Number of Members	Cash	Credits	Goods Account	Personal Estate and Securities	Real Estate	Total
	236 245 250	30,369	183,290	2,745,491 3,131,106 2,416,440	3,318,768	332,941	1 050 201	7,154,513 8,025,897 8,709,644

Debits.

Year	mber of rtium	ibers	Outsiders'	Contri and Rese	butions erve Fund	
	Numb of Consortiv	Numb of Memby	Accounts	Contrib- utions	Reserve Fund	Total
	236 245 250	31,265 30,369 32,347	5,572,049 6,313,374 6,900,527	298,639 308,459 315,799	1,283,824 1,404,063 1,493,318	7,154,513 8,025,897 8,70 9, 644

he total credits increased from 1,070,000 crs. in 1896 to 7,362,400 crs. 6 and 8,709,644 crs. in 1912; while the total debits of the consortiums sedfrom919,000 crs. in 1896 to 6,106,000 crs. in 1906 and to 6,900,500 crs. 2, leaving net amounts of share capital, of 151,000 crs. in 1896, 700 crs. in 1906 and 1,809,117 in 1912.

hese last figures show the financial strength of the co-operative ites; it must also be remembered that, besides these 1,800,000 crs., is a guarantee fund of about ten million crowns, as security for the entents of the Consortiums to outsiders in case of failure (1). In the tof Trent the legal form chosen for the distributive consortiums was

Konkurs, according to the Austrian legal term.

that of limited liability consortiums, contemplated in the law on come tiums of April 9th., 1873. (Bull. Imperial Laws, No. 70).

Among the results of distributive co-operation in the Trent distributive shall mention the following: the co-operative distributive societies regate the prices and the quality of goods on the market; even the merchan have to take account of the prices fixed by the consortiums and the qual of the goods placed on the market by the distributive co-operative societies.

As regards the financial advantages, an important calculation was meaning the newspaper "Cooperazione Trentina", of June 30th., 1889, on the last of the information supplied with regard to the purchase and consumpt of goods by the co-operative societies in the years 1897 and 1898. Accord to this calculation, on about 7,600,000 crs. worth of goods bought in the two years from the co-operative societies then existing, a saving of 3% made by wholesale purchase and payment in time to profit by the dison that is 228,000 crs. On the goods distributed (6,200,000 crs.), on whicher fair dealing merchants would have charged about 20%, the co-operative societies, on an average, realised a profit of 7% so that their members also this way gained 13%; the members would therefore have gained 806,000 on the goods supplied by the societies, and this, added to the 228,000 above mentioned, gives 1,034,000 crs. as the amount of the immediate savings for the two years.

It is further to be noted that at that date there were only 119 on-up ative societies with 17,100 members, while in 1912 there were more thanks as many societies with 32,000 members; if the calculation made for 18 and 1898 is correct, the annual saving to the members in recent years were about 1,000,000 crs.

* *

There are also in the Trent district Mixed Distributive and Credit a sortiums, for example, the Trent Co-operative Union. We give below situation of these in the last three years.

TABLE VII. — Situation of Mixed Distributive and Credit Consortium

Credits

Year	Number of Consortiums	Number of Members	Cash	Credits	Goods Account	Personal Estate and Securities	Resi Estate	To
1910	2 2 2	481 513 531	2,891 5,192 4,645	222,490 135,705 244,476	118,059	32,506		33 ² 4 307, 4 ² 9,

Debits

	ton the	# E	Outsidezs'		butions rve Fund	
Aert	Numb of Consorth	Numb	Accounts	Con- tributions	Reserve Fund	Total
	2	481	317,156	12,320	3,406	332,883
	2	513 531	289,998 412,238	13,777	3,454 3,635	307 ,22 9 429,721

C. - Co-operation for Production and Sale.

(a) Agricultural.

In the table accompanying this section of our study, there are figures for of the consortiums for production and sale to be found in the district of t.

We shall also here briefly speak of these forms of co-operation and cially of that class of consortiums, of which no statistics are given in l'able VIII.

Cocoon Drying Societies .- The District of Trent, throughout a large part hich silk worms are extensively reared, was not able, previous to the intion of these societies, in any way to overcome the speculation in pure and sale of cocoons and was therefore obliged to sell at the price the ers offered.

14

		su				G	Credits				Debits	fte	
Kind of Consortiums	Year	tumber maortiu	tumber Member			Goods	Personal	Real		Outsiders	Contributions and Reserve Fund	ions and Fund	
,			i io	5	Ao vances	Accounts	Securities	Batate	1010	Accounts	Contributions	Reserve	Total
										-	-		
Pleatric Light and Domes	0761	4	1,207	910'9	88,132	59,525		370,556	579,211	54,980 370,556 579,211 558,636 15,507	15,507	5,067	579,211
	1161	4	1,356	3,683	78,251	70,034	56,463		463,962 672,396	649,090 15,567	15,567	5,739	672,396
	2161	Е	1,223	1,222	107,340	67,866	83,521	312,710	572,661	551,160 15,773	15,773	4,727	572,661
	1910	14	8	6,259	20,444	18,800	552	l	46,057	28,243	2,730	15,083	46,057
Brocade Consortiums	1161	(4	128	5,581	30,753	36,343	569	1	73,372	65,252	2,785	5,334	73,372
	1912	61	127	1,387	33,820		612	4,495	81,387	72,509	2.840	6,038	81,387
	0161	н	220	143	74,549	8,193	37,335	I	60,221	55,924	688	3,608	60,220
Bakeries	1161	61	218	25	14,586	11,324	1,197	35,958	63,092	58,080	989	4,325	63,092
	1912	61	221	1,429	24,178	18,848	6,525	30,801	81,774	76,689	869	4,386	81,774
Various Consortiums (for	0161	. +	1,431	478	115,478	71,041	<u> </u>	102,588 228,723	518,671	489,455 10,780 18,435	10,780	18,435	518,671
Weaving and Spinning	1161	7	1,720	8,508	143,364	77,468	143,500	287,951	660,800	579,351 15,038 66,410	15,038	66,410	660,800
Flax, Peasants' League, etc.).	1912	9	1,717	1106	628'811		137,122	256,321	598,125	513,854 16,830 67,441	r6,830	67,441	598,125
;	0161	æ	273	4,332	123,238	66,038	50,743	137,265	381,619	340,860 19,556 21,202	19,556	21,202	381,619
Wine Societies	1161	ō	357	3,585	176,880	84,890	58,497	173,796	497,649		27,684	-	497,649
		•											

AUSTRIA - CO-DESIGNON AND ASSOCIATION

Thus it often happened that silkworm breeders parted with their valule produce at absurdly low prices, which did not pay them at all, so that nv preferred to abandon their business and substitute their mulberry es by vines and other more remunerative plants.

In this case also recourse was had to co-operation and establishments founded providing purchasers with the necessary conveniences. ecially for weighing and drying the cocoons, and in these establishments produce could be stored, if need were, until the conditions of the market broved. When the necessary arrangements had been made for the inlation of the drying establishments, and for the selection of the form to given to the new institution, in 1901 the first cocoon drying consorn was founded at Cles (Valle di Non) by 22 economic societies of the

The founders were encouraged by this first experiment; in fact the estabment at once gave excellent results, rendering the producers independent attracting to the Trent market serious firms, which purchased the duce of the organized silkworm breeders at suitable and remunerative es, which contributed appreciably to raise the price of cocoons even on er markets of the country.

The example of the producers of the Valle di Non was followed by silkm breeders of the most productive regions of the country, so that in ort time there had arisen drying establishments at Rovereto, Cavedine, lonazzo Mori, Arco Trento, Levico and elsewhere.

These establishments take various forms: we find some are consortiums, e are societies in civil law, some are private establishments. Subtially, however, they do not differ greatly from each other, because generthe same contract regulations are adopted as those drawn up and adopted he economic societies which founded the Cles drying establishment. These establishments offer another by no means inconsiderable

intage, that is to say they can be used also for the drying of maize. This 1 advantage of indubitable importance when we consider the fact that ome parts of the Trent district, the pellagra has not yet been extirpand in order that this terrible malady may be more effectually comd the Imperial and Royal Government has granted some of these blishments subsidies varying from 5,000 to 6,000 crs. out of the pellafund, or subsidies of 2,500 crs. out of the provincial funds voted

he purpose.

Wine Societies. - The institution of these consortiums for production sale arose in the most difficult period for viticulture and wine making e district of Trent, that is to say, at the date of the renewal of the Comial Treaty of 1892 between Austria and Italy, in which there was ind the famous clause in favour of Italian wines. The consequences of clause were fatal for the wine trade of the district; the prices fell in almost to half what they had been and the production would perhaps been even more severely affected, had it not been that the spread of loxera in Hungary created a new market for the consumption of the

lary produce of the district and especially of musts.

The Government, in order to alleviate the situation, assigned subvections of some thousands of florins for several years in succession and the money was largely used to promote the institution of wine societies. This aided, therefirst of all arose the Riva wine society, which had an endowment of 11,000 florins (22,000 crs.): then followed that of Borgo, endowed with 6,000 fls., then that of Revò with 4,000 fls. and, later on, those of Name, Campo Tassullo, Rallo, Tuenno, Pederzano, Mezocorona and Cloz, with smaller grants. Some of these were able, through their fortunate position, to overcome their initial difficulties successfully enough; others, however, with movering capital, had a severe struggle, owing to the low prices due to the competition of Italian wines, and some at last had to succumb.

The situation of the wine trade in the Trent district is now much improved; this is largely due to the abolition of the clause favouring Italian wines, in the last commercial treaty entered into between Austria and Italy in 1006.

This naturally had its effect also on the wine societies; many of then were transformed into co-operative wine societies, which means that anyone may become a member and enjoy the advantages offered, whilst, generally, in the other wine societies, membership is limited to the founders; the later societies have more than anything else the character of profit seeking into the character of profit seeking in the character of profit seek

The Vienna Agricultural Department has recently proposed the instiution of a Federation of the Wine Societies of the Italian part of the province; indeed, the Council for the Development of Co-operation in the Treet District, of which we have already had occasion to speak, has studied this important question with the object of discovering whether it would not be advisable to found a Federation to exercise supervision over the producer in their technical and financial business. The Trent Provincial Council of Agriculture has indeed drawn up the rules for the federation, and complete the arrangements for its foundation.

Dairies and Livestock Improvement Societies.—According to the census returns for 1910, the Trent District has 98,558 head of horned cattle which are kept for about 9 months on 44,315 ha. of meadow land and 39,116 ha of pastures. Without considering the milk treated on the mountain, about 28,000,000 kgs. of milk are annually transformed into 750,000 kg. of butter, 1,500,000 kg. of cheese and 200 hl. of buttermilk, of a total value of more than 3,500,000 crs. To all this we must add the large area of the Alpine graping grounds, of which there are more tham 700, with about 50,000 headd horned cattle on them; the average yield of these animals, in dairy product alone, is about 1,000,000 crs.

The Trent Division of the Provincial Council of Agriculture has always had at heart the promotion of the dairy industry; its action in behalf of horned cattle improvement has kept pace with that in behalf of the improvement of Alpine farms and pastures; for this purpose, the Division has constituted among its members a "Council of Alpine Grazing Grounds,"

advise in regard to all applications for the execution of works of im-

In the best centres of livestock improvement in the Trent District there enow livestock improvement societies organized on a co-operative basis. In all these societies were united in a Federation, to provide for the more Fectual co-ordination and uniformity of the work of the livestock improvers. oth as regards the collective sale and purchase of butchers' beasts and reeding stock, the grazing of the same, the collective grazing of young attle etc.

With the object of promoting the dairy industry, the Trent Division f the Provincial Council of Agriculture published model rules for the airy societies in its Yearbook for 1884 (1).

These have increased to an extraordinary degree; in 1887 there ere in the District of Trent 247 dairies; in 1901, 313; in 1902, 321; in 1903,

In 1801 there were 321 dairy societies in the whole of Austria, and of 165e 164 in the Trent District; in 1899 the dairies in the whole of ustria were 708, 256 of them belonging to the Trent District. At present the Trent Division of the Provincial Council of Agriculture is intent on resolvig on modern principles the complex problem of the Trent dairy industry ad, therefore, on reorganizing also this department of the co-operation of he district, being strongly supported in the matter by the Central and Proincial Governments. The State and Provincial subventions granted for he improvement of dairying can only be accorded to dairy or cheese dairy xieties satisfying certain definite conditions laid down by the Departent in agreement with the Provincial Executive Committee. New dairy cieties or unions composed of one or more undertakings in one locality ust be constituted under the form of limited liability co-operative msortiums, submit to inspection of their accounts by the Federation I the Co-operative Consortiums of the Italian part of the Province and in heir technical business to the supervision of the Provinial Council; they ay, then, expect subsidies of between 20 and 30 % by way of conibution to the expense of the construction of the new dairy or the adapttion of the old buildings to the purposes of a central dairy or the ally treatment of such a quantity of milk as may cover the expense of

The Department of Agriculture, the Province and the Trent Division f the Provincial Council of Agriculture, then, grant special subventions provide the dairy societies with new implements and improved iachinery.

(b) Non-Agricultural.

Various consortiums have been formed in the Trent District for the proction of electric light and power. Some of them have given good results; others have failed, above all through insufficient technical knowledge. The are now only three consortiums of the kind with 1,223 members.

Some other consortiums have also been founded on co-operative pinciples, for example, joiners', blacksmiths' consortiums etc., but for man reasons they have not had the success expected of them.

There are, finally, in the district, brocade consortiums, bakers' consortiums, various consortiums, for example, for weaving and spinning $flax_{ch}$

D. - The Central Federation.

The Federation of the Rural Banks and Co-operative Societies $_0$ the Italian Part of the Province of the Tyrol with head quarters at $_{\text{Treal}}$ was founded in 1895 and received legal recognition on December $_{\text{4th}}$ $_{\text{d}}$ that year.

The object of the Federation is:

- (1) To promote co-operation generally and especially that form 0 it concerned with the development of personal credit and saving among the agricultural classes;
- (2) To encourage its development and progress by means of improved rules and the adoption of correct and uniform technical and administraive principles,
- (3) To supervise the working of the societies by means of ordinary and extraordinary inspections;
- (4) To defend and watch over their moral, material, legal and administrative interests;
- (5) To develop and direct the work of credit, purchase and sale and promote mutual business relations;
- (6) To promote mutual assistance of every possible kind among in members.

The Federation has two Divisions: one for Rural Banks, the other for all other co-operative societies. Each Division has its own general meetings, its own Council, Executive and Presidential Committees; the two Divisions together form the General Congress; the two Divisional Council form the Federal Council; the two Divisional Executive Committees from the Permanent Executive Committee; the two Vice Presidents, together with the General President, form the Presidential Committee.

The means the Federation employs to attain the above ends at various; amongst them we shall mention: propaganda by means of the press and lectures; ordinary and special inspections of technical, administrative and legal business, legal consultation and protection, instruction in technical, administrative and book keeping matters.

The funds needed are supplied by the Government and the Province by way of subventions and when these do not suffice, by the federated societies by means of annual contributions of amounts fixed each year by the General Congress in accordance with the estimates. The Federation is a civil society regulated by law of November 15th, 1867, (Bull. Imperial Laws, No. 134), and extend ing its action only to industrial and economic confidence.

iums, founded in accordance with the law of April 9th., 1873 (Bull. will Laws, No. 70), and existing in the Trent District.

At the moment of its formal constitution (November 20th., 1805) the eration included 38 consortiums, that is, 8 rural banks and 30 coative societies. Ten years later, in 1906, the Federated Societies were and of these 155 were rural banks and 258 co-operative consortiums; or there were 453 federated societies, 284 being co-operative consors and 169 rural banks. The work of the Federation is most active and ficial in the matter of inspection. By the provisions of the rules the rated consortiums are subject since 1895 to a general inspection to be e as a rule every two years. This inspection was made compulsory wof June 10th., 1903 (Bull. Imperial Laws, No. 133), as a result of which v economic consortium founded in accordance with the law No. 70. niloth., 1873 is obliged to submit to a general inspection every two years. In consequence of this, the Federation has been legally recognised as an tution for supervision, with its authority to inspect legally recognised authorized (Lieutenant Governor's Order of August 4th., 1903, No. 33,632. Department of Justice, No. 25). The Federation itself was later on usted by the Commercial Courts of Trent, Rovereto, and Botzen with official inspection of the consortiums not federated in it.

From 1896 to 1906 the Federation made 902 inspections, occupying 5 working days: to the report of his inspection the inspector generally a comment, either to explain the report to the General Meetings or Boards of Management, or for some other purpose. The action of the ration in this department is of great importance for the regular to fithe societies.

The Federation also occupies itself with the technical education of the in order to obtain a uniform system of bookkeeping f r the rural is and the co-operative consectiums. In order to attain this end, the ration has initiated a series of courses of education, of ten days' tion, repeated each year, and at the end of the courses there are examinate; the Federation gives certificates of attendance, showing the results the examinations and attesting the ability of the candidate to books according to the system approved by the Federation itself these certificates facilitate his employment in the federated societies r as warehouseman, accountant for the distributive co-operative some or as accountant and cashier in the Rural Banks.

In these educational courses the rules, internal regulations and laws ing to the economic consortiums are explained; the manner of correcting with the Government authorities is also taught; the organization properation in the Trent District is explained, including everything ing to the propaganda and development of the associations.

E. — Central Bank. — The Catholic Bank of the Trent District. In the Federal Congress of January 29th., 1896 the erection of a Com-

Bank was proposed to give the Rural Banks and Co-operative Societies to possibility of suitably investing their surplus cash first in the distribution itself, and, in case of that not being possible, also outside of it, always me security for the capital, and of obtaining the money necessary for their me on easy and good conditions. On this basis, the Banco di S. Vigilio [8]

of S. Vigilio) was founded, but the new institute was not able to an There just then manifested itself among the federated societies a disagnment with regard to the denominational or undenominational character the co-operative institutions and the di ection to be given to them. It disagreement was intensified when the Bank of S. Vigilio was founded order to act as a Central Bank for the co-operative societies, and produced a rupture between the denominational and undenominational party so that there was a severe contest in the Federal Congress on April 26th 1899, in which the denominational party prevailed; in the elections offices in the society the undenominational party were completely defeat

and from that date the tendency of the co-operative societies has been markedly denominational.

The Catholic Bank of the District of Trent was founded just in a sequence of the change of tendency, which led to the substitution of the Ba of S. Vigilio before it had begun working. Founded on December 28th, 18

sequence of the change of tendency, which led to the substitution of the Ba of S. Vigilio before it had begun working. Founded on December 28th., 189 the Catholic Bank was registered on February 7th., 1899 and began working on April 10th. of the same year. It is an economic limited liability constium, in accordance with the law No. 70 of April 9th., 1873., Its object the "grant of credit in its various forms and it purposes specially to courage by means of credit and collection of deposits, Rural Bail co-operative societies for distribution and production and other institute of tendencies in conformity with the Catholic spirit and therefore ready

co-operate in the solution of the social question." The share capital unlimited and formed by contributions of 20 crs. each, the reserve a guarantee funds. The progress made by the Catholic Bank of the Trent Dish is clearly seen from Tables IX and X which show the situation of this but year by year, from its foundation (1899) to 1912; the number of members creased from 625 in 1899 to 1,678 in 1912 with 58,450 shares, as against 33 in 1899. The share capital increased from 67,000 crs. 1899 in to 1,309 crs. in 1912; about half of this is derived from contributions of the Tables and economic consortiums of the Trent district. To the size capital is added the reserve fund, which in 1914 amounted to 173,089 defects the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have increased to an extraordinary degree; for the savings deposits have a savings deposits and the savings deposits

1,460,000 crs. in 1899 they had risen to 39,397,613 crs. in 1912. Best its head office at Trent, the Bank has some twenty agencies in various the principal centres of the country; it has extended its action also to field of thrift, undertaking life, accident, burglary, transport etc., inso ance. The Catholic Bank of the Trent District was the initiator of the

mportant undertakings, the Railway of the Upper Valley of the Non, and he Industrial Bank, to finance which it largely contributed. The ailway has not been a great success; the Industrial Bank was founded in rder to give moral and financial support to industrial undertakings that night give the youth of the country permanent and remunerative emloyment at home and so serve to check emigration. From what has been aid above, however, on the matter of emigration, it does not seem that he Industrial Bank has succeeded in this aim.

We shall speak in the next section of the support given by the Cathlic Bank of the Trent District to the Industrial Agricultural Syndicate.

TABLE IX. - Situation of the Catholic

	Accounts					
	Accounts	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903
í	Cash	46,488.38	63,418.85	98,324.58	161,136.67	183,862.8
2	Invested in Securities	372,785.30	172,433,18	236,516.30	1,178,540.46	2,794,924.5
3	Bills and Acceptances (Home and Foreign)	184,124.99	673,407.02	2,058,574	1,845,483.17	I,902,257.2
4	Real Estate	-	-	-	-	-
5	Furniture, Safes etc	8,963.31	10,000 —	10,000	15,000	27,884.51
6	Current Accounts Guaranteed by Bills, Securities, Mort- gages and Consortiums	768,189.79	1,748,614.67	1,886,536,02	4,121,393.21	5,471,177.40
,	Corresponding Credits Banks	144,732.50	34,991.13	281,585.30	955,653.87	925,9774
3	Sundry Debtors	2,697.95	20,457.46	3.930,46	90,214.84	33,868,6
•	Deposits (as Guarantee, for Administration and Cust- ody)	961,323.49	2,332,370.19	2,524,197.01	5,771,575.71	7,814,834,7
0	Other Credits	5,924.43	1,397.66	9,057.60	19,025.54	21,742.40
	Total Credits	2,495,530.00	5,057,990.76	7,114,802.09	14,098,023.47	19,176,529,2
	Number of Members	625	714	1,037	1,163	1,32
	Number of Shares	8,350	4,491	5,541	6,720	8,25

TABLE X. - Situation of the Catholic.

	Accounts		1	I	Ī	l .
		1899	1900	1901	1902	1903
I	Capital Shares	67,000 —	B9,820 —	110,840-	134,400—	165,020
2	Reserve Funds	1,259	2,062.78	5,781.48	10,509.88	16,716.92
3	Deposits and Current Ac-	1,860,197.03	2,603,321.54	4,353,698.33	7,360,574.18	10,388,921,88
4	Banks and Correspondents	_	10,909.79	80,877.65	738,343.99	709,613.67
5	Dividends Due and Ar-	_	-		1,220.85	r,686.73
6	Thrift Fund	_	839.83	1,161.42	1,509.18	2,988.37
7	Sundry Creditors	557.38	_	9,739.92	46,031.07	40,704.57
8	Deposits (as Guarantee, for Administration and Cust- ody).	961,323.49	2,332,370,19	2,524,197.01	5,771,575.71	7,814,834-79
9	Rediscounts	2,839.79	7 868.99	15,709.95	15,024.60	15,022.06
ΙÓ	Net Profits	2,353.41	9,897.04	14,816.33	18,834.01	21,020.30
	Total Debits	2,495,530.10	5,057,090.16	7,114,822,09	14,098,023.47	19,176,529.29
	Number of Members	615-	714-	1,057 —	1,165 —	1,323-
	Number of Shares	5,350	4,49I	5,542-	6,720	8,521

histrict, for the Working Years 1899-1912.

1912	1911	1910	1909	1908	1907	1906
497.477.I	396,005.39	390,751.25	412,367.61	309,354.80	256,139.56	308,656.15
7,409,301,44	6,041,318.31	7,446,349. 3 6	7,885,568.71	5,187,319.80	4,280,362,62	3,666,759.63
7,887,317.62	8,160,837.68	4.915,454-75	3,072,488.64	3,155,842.04	4,064,971,06	2,347,507.36
779,639.94	530,978.78	543,444.63	533,110.77	402,812.53	332,812.53	406,06t. 6 9
72,205.63	71,282.28	68,345.46	68,357.83	53,086.30	50,274.77	48,853.97
20,437,350,82	17,966,443,50	15,380,653,07	12,895,239.26	11,404,341.54	7,307,692.59	6,078,207.25
4,069,604.22	3,591,182,85	4,168,832,03	3,922,911.45	5,053,360.07	5,603,307.11	,,684,437 <i>-</i> 27
103,263.01	74,264.14	91,887.91	184,168.02	440,548.34	352,682.45	240,614.80
	25475,857.91	22,195,430.52	21,664,283,25	19,454,294.99	13,703,834.14	0,526,139-74
23,053,120,63 56,505.92	71,571.55	78,915.81	111,927,82	52,190,21	45,996.27	39,609.27
64,266,786.40	62,379,742.39	55,280,064.79	50,750,423.36	45,513,150.52	35,998,073.10	3,346,847.82
1,678	z,654	r,685	1,665	1,619	1,603	1,569
58,450	55,924	52,049	34,174	32,944	32,662	30,583

vistrict, for the Working Years 1899-1912.

1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912
611 ,660	653,240-	658,880-	683,480 —	1,040,980-	1,118,480	1,316,900
40,357.61	58,578.42	76,279.67	97,255.89	146,373.07	164,329.50	173,089.49
,001,278.11	21,263.511.16	45,077,123,62	27,987,649.64	31,654,196.25	35,291,209,21	3 9,39 7, 613. 8 9
-	-	_		-	_	_
3,733.20	3,536.08	4,576.50	3,555-72	3,765.11	9,033.52	5,874 —
7,863.71	86,427.96	12,374.60	16,622.31	16,853.27	16,438.74	15,730.36
38,754.82	121,680.44	118,714.74	162,769.77	87,991,84	146,045.77	144,966.31
526,139.74	13,703,834.14	19,454,204.00	21,664,283.25	22,195,430,52	25,475,857.91	23,053,120,63
29,821,54	44,342.03	43,019,10	40,327	63,858.19	86,357.32	72,797.59
87,239.09	62,921.97	67,887.30	94,479.78	70,616.54	71,990.42	86,694.13
3,346,847,82	35,998,073.10	45,513,150.52	50,750,423,36	55,280,064.79	62,379,742.39	64,266,786.48
1,5 6 9	I,603 —	1,619 —	1,665	1,685	1,654-	1,67 6
30,583	32,662	32,994	34,174 —	52,049	55,924 —	5,845
	1		ì	ſ	1 -1	

22

F. - The Industrial Agricultural Syndicate.

When the Federation had organized a central credit institute for the co-operative societies, provision was made for their organization for purpow of purchase. The Federation itself originally worked as an agency and ocquied a middle position between buyers and sellers, renouncing all pecuniar profit in favour of the former, but the business reached a point when the need was felt for an institution to relieve the federal office of the difficult work of supplying goods for the account of the co-operation societies; in this way the Federation would be able to occupy itself principally with inspections in accordance with its rules. The new institution between the commercial business of supplying goods, obtained advantages for the associated societies and serve as a central confidence of the commercial business of the co-operative societies for the tribution and production.

It was with this intention, the Industrial Agricultural Syndicate was founded.

It is a limited liability economic consortium, coming under the provision of law No. 70 of April oth., 1873; it accepts as members only economic consortiums and kindred associations, with individual members limited in the number of officers required. Its object is to facilitate for the co-oper ative societies and generally for the associated consortiums the collective un chase of goods, machinery and other material necessary, as well as the collect ive sale of the produce of the associated consortiums and their members i attains its object by means of a purchase and sale agency, the erection of oil lective warehouses and the installation of industrial workshops. The capital of the society consists of the shares (actions) subscribed by the member of the value of 50 crowns each, the reserve fund and the guarantee had equal to five times the amount of the shares. By its rules the Institution must not seek profits, so that the credit balance - after deduction of a pr tion for the reserve fund against losses — is divided among the member in proportion to the purchases made and the contributions paid up; in the way the consortiums profit directly and indirectly. Founded on Novem ber 23rd., 1899, the Industrial Agricultural Syndicate was registered of December 13th. of the same year and began working at the beginning of 1900. The tables XI, XII, XIII, here given, showing the situation for the various working years and the total business done, make evident b figures the progress of the institute from the first years following it foundation up to 1912.

The members (consortiums) from 134 in 1900 increased to 320 in 1912, the share capital (paid up and not paid up) increased from 19,700 crs. to 85,550 crs.; the guarantee fund from 95,500 crs. to 427,750 crs.; the amount of the sales from 886,838 crs. to 7,684,905 crs.

On the commercial market of the Trent District, the Industrial Agricultural Syndicate has to regulate both the prices and the quality of the goods.

The Syndicate also exerts its action in the sale of the produce of the ieties affiliated to it or their members, for example, their wine, dairy since, vegetables etc.

BLE XI. - Situation of the Industrial Agricultural Syndicate, Trent.

	1905	1907	1909	1911	1912
Cash Credits to Members Credits to Outsiders Goods in Warehouse Contributions Due Securities Installation Purniture Real Estate. Guarantee Fund	545.60 794,678.20 114,455.01 496,906.51 9,900— 39,922:58 3,018.82 26,922.28 287,603.37 355,250—	164,584.72 588,566.50 6,850— 62,213,58 2,444.60 47,632.58	1,088,671.16 226,670.72 620,613.08 3,300 — 77,5 7 0.90 1,901.26 39,245.72 593,001 —	446,107.62 699,536.68 2,000 — 105,584.90 1,357.82 45,606.55 598,975.72	1,490,402.04 584,084.94 862,589.26 2,000 — 161,032.30 1,086.10 53,572.63 638,605.24
Total Crs	2,12 9,2 01.57	2,470,601,11	3,050,9 5 7.52	3,613,922.35	4,237,304.44

BLE XII. — Situation of the Industrial Agricultural Syndicate, Trent.

		Debüs.			
	1905	1907	1909	1911	1912
Debts to Outsiders . Contributions Paid	1,666,740.89	1,979,280.54	2,551,510.61	3,075,781.11	3,696,144.77
and Unpaid	71,050	77,800	78,300	83,750	85,550 -
Guarantee Fund Reserve Funci :	355,250	389,000	391,500-	418,750-	427,750 -
(a) Assessed (b) Brought Forward	4,370	2,620	2,820	3,070	3,210 —
tom Previous Years. (c) Special Fund a- painst Eventual Loss-	9,111.07	11,947.62	14,607.54	18,015.07	20,445.85
s on Credits to Mem- ers, Net Profit	16,466.84 8,212.77				2,366.06 11,837.76

Total Crs. . 2,129,201.57 2,470,601.11 3,050,957.52 3,613,922.35 4,237,304.44

Invoices

Goods

Rural Benk's Loans

Cash

Guarantee

Amens-

Contribu-tions

Fund Ė

Paid

Due pre-a

Year

Table XIII. — Total Business Done by the Industrial Agricultural Syndiciae of Trent, in its First Thirteen Years.

2	AUS	STRIA	- <u>-</u>	0-01	'Ara	TION	AN	D AS	soci	ATRO	N
*		3,082	6,903	9,63r	12,424	14,089	901,71	17,608	18,492	21,551	•
Expenditure	Cr.S.	886,838.64	1,450,991.22	2,105,621,55 2,002,453.74	2,597,803.16 2,458,391.29 12,424	3,117,382.54 2,870,321.73 14,089	3,705,686.99 17,106	3,789,484.73 4,741,356.39 4,301,876.63 17,608	4,630,840.07	5,151,209.66 21,551	
Revenue	CTS.	932,320.38	1,532,431.29				4,121,486.75	4,741,356.39	5,219,406.57	5,578,651.33	1
Expenditure	crs.	143,582,36	456,277.67	478,705.89	1,916,345.18	2,149,683,74 2,802,068.34	3,378,379.54	3,789,484.73	4,167,321.92	4,572,239.05	
Revenue	crs.	150,496,45	484,419,56	767,463,22	1,933,011,98	2,149,683,74	2,149,683,18	3,429,135,41	3,828,971,35	4,191,681,25 4,572,239.05 5,578,651.33	, 600 510 00
Expenditure	'iu	575,101.94	683,920.30	812,758.61	960,724.12	991'091'1 2'160'166	1,584,048.50	1,517,470.78 3,429,135,41	1,950,416.19 1,950,324,99 3,828,971,35 4,167,321.92 5,219,406.57 4,630,840.07 18,492	1,799,847.19 1,793,766.78	201 EOO 1 000 000 00 00 000 000 000 000 00
Revenue	Ė	577,493.18	684,930.44	813,072.75	911,340.70	1,171,091.77	1,584,630.10	1,531,932.42	1,950,416.19	1,799,847.19	T 000 080 70
Fund	Š	95,500	006'641 6	1 240,750 —	051,1750	309,000—	355,250 —	370,000—	389,000-	382,350 —	201 500

391,500- 1,923,289.70 1,914,806.03 4,622,542,02 5,022,391.20 6,219,032.45 5,713,043.89 22,975

250 1,223 198 237 - 355,250-260 1,353 127 248 - 370,000-271 1,419 137 262 - 389,000-

220 | I,088 | 148 | 203 | -- | 309,000 --

180 193

106 1902

38

96

202 180

134 168

1900

10 271,750 --

726 361 174

1903 1904 1905 9061 1907 1908 320 1.671 40 321 - 427.250 - 3.472.567.72 3.456.385.79 6.015.590.20 5.933.391.12 8.368.217.14 7.684,005.09 28.030

310 1,655 40 307 --- 418,750 -- 2,519,449.54 2,507,612.41 5,425,467.19 5,380,412,85

300 x,574 .75 297 -- 412.250--

273 I.438 93 270 --282 1,500 66 282 ---

1909 0161 1161

2,254,615.40 2,250,298.68 5,091,524,74 5,380,412.85

6,272,899.93 | 24,080

6,765,710.11 7,286,255.49

6,731,858.53

The Industrial Agricultural Syndicate now has its own extensive buildings vith large and convenient storehouses, splendid offices, modern cattle talls, large courtyards connected with the railway and a numerous staff.

The syndicate owes its progress not only to the support of the associated properative societies which contribute to form its share capital as well s to its sales and hence to its gains, but also to the Catholic Bank of the frent District and the Rural Banks which provide the necessary funds for ts working on favourable terms.

§ 4. MUTUAL INSURANCE.

We shall finally say a few words with regard to the livestock insurance societies. In the district of Trent, private insurance societies were first formed. with imperfect rules, without fixed annual premiums, but calls were made to meet each claim, and there was an obligation to take a proportion of the flesh of the dead or slaughtered animal corresponding with the amount assured. Other societies, on the same lines, only estimated the value of the animal at the moment of slaughtering, and, generally, all the societies had a rule reieving the member of any expenditure with regard to the treatment of sick ivestock. As we know, in order that an insurance society may work well, t must be governed by rules which oblige the members to pay a fixed anmal premium in advance (unless the cases of death are too numerous, when orresponding increases of the amounts are not to be excluded), establish valuation on which the claim may be based, compel the member to take in active part in the work, and do not exempt him from any trouble or hability: the rules should also subject every member to strict supervision regard to his treatment of his livestock, especially when sick,

In 1807 the three first insurance societies, with approved rules, were

ounded at Ala, Rovereto and Aldeno. In the mean time, the Provincial Coun-I of Agriculture prepared other rules for the constitution of an association every legal district to be placed under the management of a veterinry surgeon, who should not only treat the animals, but extend the know-dge of good principles of livestock improvement. The association should ay 90 % of the value in case of losses, provide medicines freely and have he animals valued once or twice a year, leaving the members free to replace heir livestock, provided certain precautions are taken. Two insurance pcieties were founded on these principles at Trent and Vezzano in 1899, at they did not give the results expected, in fact, whether it were due to he small amount of supervision that could be exercised, as their spheres of ction were too large, or the excessive expenditure incurred in the purhase of medicines, or, finally, because the members, sure of realising 90 %, and it more to their interest that their livestock should die, instead of maining under treatment for a long while, even if certain of cure, it is rtain that the expenditure increased gradually more and more and the remium, instead of remaining stationary about 1%, rose from year to ear, till in six years it had become 1.8 and 2 %.

And yet in 1900 the District Agricultural Consortium of Riva founded society for that district and immediately afterwards others arose, under the name of Catholic livestock insurance societies, in 9 other localities.

The difficulties these first societies had to bear revealed a whole serie of defects and errors to be eliminated and overcome; it was see that in associations for very large areas it was not possible to exercise effectual supervision; that by facilitating matters too much for the member the societies increased their expenditure disproportionately and the aunupremium, as it could no longer be kept within the desired limits, became too heavy a charge.

Livestock insurance societies must have as limited as possible; field, so that every member may exercise the necessary supervision ove the others; the societies must also call on the member to bear part of the loss so as to prevent owners abandoning a sick animal to its fate.

Finally, these small societies must be guaranteed by a province reinsurance institute; so that in case of numerous losses they will not hobliged to ask too high premiums or to contract debts by which the prestige and their existence are compromised.

On these principles, the Provincial Executive Committee in 1903 if fact drew up very simple model rules, with which a society was founded in every commune where there were at least 25 members with 100 animals to be insured.

The premium is 1 % per ann., to be paid in advance in two half yeals instalments, from date of the valuation; the society contributes 80 % in case of loss, leaving the cost of the treatment of the sick animals to be borneby the member himself.

The Provincial Council provides the societies with printed forms and the Provincial Executive Committee grants every society a subsidy of 200 crs. towards the cost of its installation; the societies may reinsure with the Provincial Reinsurance Institute, which advances the amount without interest and, if required, keeps the books of the societies adhering to it required health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the amounts of the deliver in return for health the return

to it paying half the amounts of the claims in return for half the annual preniums as fixed in the rules, less the proceeds from the sale of the annual preniums as fixed in the rules, less the proceeds from the sale of the annual preniums as fixed in the rules, less the proceeds from the sale of the annual preniums as fixed in the rules, less the proceeds from the sale of the annual preniums and injured or compulsorily slaughtered.

Already in 1904, 15 societies were established governed by the provincial rules. The Society for Mutual Insurance and Improvement of Horned Cattle for the Communes of the Legal District of Trent, founded in

Horned Cattle for the Communes of the Legal District of Trent, founded in 1899, as it was unable to exercise the necessary supervision, was subtivided into many small communal associations governed by the provincial rules. The same was done in the case of the Vezzano district society. In 1905-1906, 12 other societies of similar character were founded; every year new ones arise and all are working very well, so that many have succeeded in realising savings by no means inconsiderable.

The Provincial Reinsurance Institute, founded in 1907, by the Provincial Executive Committee on the model of that existing in Bavaria, alsundertook the work of propaganda and the answering of all enquiries will regard to reinsurance: the Trent Division of the Provincial Council eart

influence in order that the individual societies may profit by the possby of balancing their risks and securing themselves against disastrous ity when the insurance premium far exceeds the ordinary rate of 1 %. e Provincial Institute has also a reserve fund placed at its disposal by the wince, out of which it meets the half of the claims it has to settle, when half of the premiums received from the societies are found to be fficient. The Provincial Institute occupies the position of a Federation, s not a fiscal office, but rather a simple union of many societies. The affiliated societies do not contribute to the expenses of the itute: these are met out of funds provided by the province. The societies supervise the working of the Institute by means of an ex-

ive committee of 8 members, representing them.

ITALY.

AGRICULTURAL, ASSOCIATIONS OF EMPLOYERS AND THE ECONOMIC INSTITUTIONS PROMOTED BY THEW

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§ 1. ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATION

In view of the extension of the association movement among labours for the defence of their interests (1) and of the frequent recurrence of agricultural strikes with serious injury to agriculture, proprietors and employe of labour in Italy have found it necessary to unite in special association commonly called Agrarie, to oppose organisation by organisation, and tresist the often excessive demands of the Labourers' Leagues for beth

(1) The number of labourers' leagues had risen, from 1,293 with 273,698 member [497] cent of the whole number of organised working men) in 1907, to 2,626 with 408,148 member (47 per cent of the organised workingmen) on January 1st., 1912. See Annuario statist Italiano, 2nd. series, vol II, 1912, p. 220.

ms and higher wages. Thus have arisen the land-owners' unions, the story of which may be divided into two periods, from 1901 to 1902 and om 1907 to 1908, at which dates economic conflicts were most frequent of most extended. In fact, in the first period the strikes numbered 850 and the strikers 369,577; in the second, the strikes were 580 and the trikers 374,619, that is a percentage of 36.06 strikes and of 33.73 strikers a the first period, and of 24.58 strikes and 34.21 strikers in the second, the total number in each case in the decade. It may be said that the two eriods above mentioned were specially remarkable for two strikes, "which

eemed to include all the partial contests of the two years and were so long and violent that they appeared to the proprietors almost like an attempt at expropriation" (1). These were two labourers' strikes; that of Polesine in 1902 and that of Parma in 1908.

But while the first period was a time of formation, the second was almost exclusively one of transformation. The employers' organisations, apidly constituted in view of the threatening attitude of the first great novements of the labour leagues, were almost rudimentary in form, and after simple agreements among the larger proprietors than any firm and olid association. But in the second period, through experience gained in the contest, they became more complete, and better prepared for resist-

me: and they also extended their action from the field of mere resistance to that of prevention.

It was also in this second period that at the first National Agricultural convention held at Parma (October, 1907) one of the largest associations of employers was formed; viz the Federazione Interprovinciale (Interprovincial Federation), and it was proposed to constitute a society of mutual

asurance against strikes, while affirming the necessity of regulating labour

ontracts by law.

From 1908 to 1909, the strikes having diminished in number from 257 to 140, and the strikers from 136,346 to 46.576, the weaker organisations and those which had arisen in districts where the conflicts seemed definitely concluded, were dissolved or ceased working. The others formed numerous supplementary institutions for economic and technical ends in order to obtain for themselves a more secure and continuous existence. In fact in 1909, at the second National Congress at Bologna, the found-

tions were laid for a Confederazione Nazionale (National Confederation), as tell as for mutual insurance societies against hail and against accidents agricultural work. These associations began work in 1911.

The importance of the employers' associations attracted the attention

The importance of the employers' associations attracted the attention the Labour Office, which made them the subject of a special inquiry, the subt of which were published in 1912.

§ 2. — THE WORKING OF THE AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATIONS AND THE DEFENSIVE MEASURES ADOPTED.

The Agricultural Associations are usually composed of larger and smaller proprietors and tenant farmers and for the most part, like the working men's syndicates, they exert their action in plains rather than a_{mon} hills or mountains, where small holdings prevail.

This is the case in the provinces of Piacenza, Parma and Bologue. The most active, that is, those in districts where the most frequent and the bitterest contests take place, have united and formed provincial organisations, in connection with the Interprovincial Federation or the National Confederation above-mentioned; but those which are less powerful and not very efficient for deciding on the methods and mean of action to be adopted are isolated.

The chief function of the Agricultural Associations is defence, in which may be more or less directly included all the supplementary function which keep the associations alive in periods of calm. Defence, therefore is clearly the fundamental raison d'être of the agricultural associations which invariably state in their regulations that their objects are the defence of individual property, freedom of labour, concord and co-operation between the classes etc.

The contributions of members are usually divided into two categories ordinary and special; the first correspond with the systems of farming, with the area of the land, the crops cultivated, or the taxable revenue, and are utilised only for the current working expenses; the second serve the purposes of defence in the contests, often amounting to considerable sums and are lieved in proportion to the requirements and the special circumstances for which they are assessed.

The numer of the votes of the members depends on the amount of the contributions paid by them, so that the large proprietors and tenam farmers dominate the meetings in which the line of action to be pursued is decided and constitute the committees for management and administration. To these committees is entrusted the duty of treating with labour associations.

The means of defence possessed by the agricultural associations cannot be calculated with precision, because the numbers of members, and the figures of the ordinary balance sheets do not indicate their full strength, which in times of need is increased by specially constituted organisations.

It is also necessary to point out that the employers' associations are not so much intended to resist demands for improvement of the laboures situation, which, are as a rule, examined by commissions appointed for the purpose, but rather to maintain discipline, as is needful in order that farms may be continuously and safely worked, and to oppose the interference of labourers in the technical organisation of production, as when they claim to limit the use of machinery, to fix the number of labourers, and to arrange the division and the methods of working etc.

The measures taken for resistance may be thus divided:

1st., those for prevention, so as to eliminate or reduce the causes

of economic conflicts;

the strikers.

2nd., those for defence, to be prepared at the moment of conflict.

In the work of prevention, which is extensive and various, may be mentioned first of all the work of some agricultural societies which seek to prevent aggravation of taxation on landed property.

More powerful, as a means of prevention, is the action of special banks promoted by the employers' associations themselves, of which we shall speak later, as they co-operate by means of credit in extending the number of small holdings and certain forms of agricultural contracts, for instance, of small leases and metairies and thus tend to diminish economic conflicts.

Collective labour contracts, especially for long periods, also assist prevention, and proprietors have repeatedly requested for these a guarantee fixed by law and binding the contracting parties. In order the more effectually to compel workmen to observe the contracts, some societies have had recourse to the formation of special guarantee funds, by means of stoppages from wages. Certain associations, especially those of the nee cultivators of Pola, Piacenza and Apulia, have increased the use of machinery. Though conflicts cannot by this means be either prevented reminated, yet the need of labourers will be diminished, the losses caused by strikes will be limited and machinery may be substituted for

The more strictly defensive action is based on solidarity amongst land-owners, expressed in the words in the regulations "one for all and all for one" and in the principle of considering an offence "committed against one as committed against all."

A very potent method of maintaining solidarity among employers' associations is that of requiring blank cheques from their members and the payment of fines for breaches of the rules or for acting in opposition to the decisions of the meetings or of the authorities of the society. The penalty must be fixed in proportion to the consequences of the breach of rule or to the number of hectares possessed by the offender.

The special contributions, to which reference has already been made,

also serve to maintain solidarity. These are used for compensation for losses in times of contest or to defray the cost of defence. Such contributions are imposed by the associations of rice cultivators; that of Novara fixes the maximum at 15 francs per hectare for proprietors, and 3 francs for tenant farmers

The rule that offences committed against one must be considered as committed against all is enforced by the prohibition to employ workmen who have been dismissed for breach of contract or who have refused to work for others, as in cases of boycotting.

Among the most ordinary and direct means of defence in case of strikes is that to which rice cultivators' associations repeatedly resort, viz, the recruiting of free labourers, not yet numerous or important in Italy. In November, 1911, the Association of Novara resolved to form a considerable

group of these to be ready for any emergency. In the provinces of Mantua and Pola they have several times substituted strikers during Various conflicts. The Agraria Parmense' (Agricultural Society of Parma), has formed the largest group (664) into a Provincial Federation.

The few registry offices especially instituted to recruit labourers in times of need, and to find free labourers, are almost entirely inactive, owing to the distrust the working men, and also the employers themselves, have them. On the other hand, in many places, the labourers' syndicates make vigorous efforts to secure the monopoly of the labour market.

But the systems and means indicated could not be efficacious in the more serious strikes, and they have often embittered the conflict

It was also necessary to dispose of sure and abundant funds in order to continue work even during strikes, to ensure the solidarity of small proprietors, and to be able to give up production or harvesting when absolute resistance was indispensable. The employers' associations have therefore constituted a mutual society against strikes, which intervened in the greater conflicts from 1908 to 1911, to compensate the injured proprietors. To this, a to other economic institutions formed by the agricultural societies, we still devote a special section.

§ 3. THE NATIONAL CONFEDERATION AND THE INTERPROVINCIAL AGRICULTURAL FEDERATION.

These are the two chief associations of employers for mutual protection that need to be taken note of here.

The foundation of the older of these, La Federazione Interprovincial Agraria, was proclaimed at the first Agricultural Convention held at Pami in October, 1907. It is a union of the most important associations of Emilia, Romagna, Lombardy and Venetia. Its aim is to decide on the best means of preventing conflicts, facilitating pacific solutions, regulating contracts between agricultural employers and employed, co-operating with administrative and political bodies for the defence of agricultural interests in general, and promoting insurance against losses caused by strikes.

From this confederation have sprung three mutual societies insuring against strikes, accidents and hail respectively; these we shall consider later on.

The Confederazione Nazionale Agraria, with its head quarters at Bologia, was founded in 1911, not in any way to substitute the Interprovincial; its scope is much wider, as it groups together distant associations differing both in their forms and interests. It indicates to them the lines on which to maintain uniform action in regard to the more general questions concerning the defence of the rights of property and industrial freedom; for this purpose it unites the various associations in a common action and makes their

istance more secure. It also aims at promoting economic action in the

Agriculturists resident in communes where there is no confederated jumunal agricultural committee for each commune. The contributions the adherent associations are in proportion to their funds.

This is the not place for us to give a full description of the work of sconfederation from its rise. It is enough to observe that in the disturbles which convulsed the provinces of Romagna, Ferrara and Vercelli, it every instance represented the land-holders with the central Government, motations of employers of all Europe, convoked by it and the Italian Justrial Confederation combined.

§ 4. ECONOMIC INSTITUTIONS PROMOTED BY THE NATIONAL GRICULTURAL ÁSSOCIATION AND BY THE FEDERATED ASSOCIATIONS.

As already said, the agricultural societies of employers do not limit their to resistance; they rather wait their opportunity to establish various itutions, both economical and technical, among their own members, he interest of the latter. Of these bodies we shall now briefly speak:

(a) Mutual Society for Insurance against Strikes. Founded in 1907, he initiative of the Interprovincial Agricultural Federation (1), it aims make good damage from:

(a) the forced desertion of land before the sowing of seed: (b) loss liminution of the products; (c) death or disease of cattle through ect or want of proper care; (d) the greater expense in working the caused by economic disputes.

These losses are only compensated when caused "by unjust strikes, oycotting or locking out". Compensation is also refused to the member has culpably (by violation of a contract, arbitrary dismissal or malment of one or more employees) caused or aggravated the conflict. This society, like most others for insurance against losses, does not antee full compensation for the thing lost or damaged, but only 80% in se of strike or boycott, and 90% in a case of lock-out, as it is desired the employer should bear some of the loss himself.

The society derives its funds chiefly from the premiums of its members,

oportion to the value insured, according to a tariff varying with the and kind of farming. It has a special fund formed, in part of the abutions of land-holding members, at the rate of 12 frs. per hectare in part of those of tenant farmers, at the rate of 6 frs. per hectare.

⁾ On this subject, see "La Mulua-Scioperi, sue bast economiche e suo ordinamento" by Sturani, Bologna, A. Garagnani, 1000.

To become a member, a candidate must belong to an associate federated with the Interprovincial Federation; the adherent societies win are best able to meet risks and losses act as intermediaries between the Mutual Society and the individual associates. Its reserve funds at prese amount to 1,500,000 frs.

- (b) Mutual Hail Insurance Society. This society, founded by the terprovincial Federation, commenced its operations in 1911. The premin consists of two parts, the one fixed, the other variable, though always in ited, and only demanded when the fixed premium is insufficient. To Society is in the habit of reinsuring the greater part of its risks in the case Insurance Company, Limited of London.
- (c) Accident Insurance Societies. From the time of their formation, (Employers' Societies have provided for the insurance of their labour against accidents in their work.

With a few exceptions for certain classes (those working methreshing-machines, wood cutters and ploughmen), no one is obliged to insured, as is the case with industrial workmen. But the employers has themselves felt the need of insuring their own workmen against accident and have formed special mutual societies for this purpose. The first these was the "Associazione fra gli agricoltori del Vercellese", foundation 1901. In the following year, a co-operative bank was established there, transformed in 1904 (in consequence of the new law on accident in work) into a consortium bank.

This provides compensation in cases of death, and permanent in ablement, total or partial, for all labourers, whether fixed or working the day, and also in certain cases of temporary disablement. In premium is fixed at five frs. for every thousand paid in wages. On Nova ber 10th., 1911, this bank of Vercelli had 654 members, insuring a total area of about 90,000 hectares, with 78,000 workmen.

In 1909, there was founded in Tuscany, on the model of the Muta Society of Vercelli, the Rural Landowners' Mutual Bank with he quarters at Florence. This, on February 28th., 1913, had 531 member with 698 farms (with 100,372 persons insured) on a tract of 264,186 hectars

The next society founded was the Cassa Mutua Lombarda, ioms in 1910 by the Milan association of proprietors and farm managers, mil its head quarters at Milan.

A fourth society arose at Bologna in 1911, modelled more or less at those of Vercelli, Florence and Milan. It shows a noteworthy simple ation in the calculation of premiums, payment being made according to the area insured. In the three last working years, the premiums vanta from lire 0.10 to 0.50 per hectare. This includes both compulsory insurance of labourers and voluntary insurance.

In case of work of special character and workshops for the manipulation or manufacture of agricultural produce, an extra premium is paid in poportion to the increased risks incurred.

Compensations granted for accidents differ according to whether the flerer be subject by law to compulsory insurance or otherwise.

In the first case, the amount of compensation is equal to that stablished by the law; in the second, it is fixed as follows:

(a) in case of death; 2,500 frs.

(b) in case of permanent total disablement, 3,000 frs.

(c) in case of permanent partial disabilement a percentage of one first in proportion to the loss of capacity for work.

Compensation for temporary disablement is not fixed by the tariff, it members may insure against such disablement by means of an extra emium.

(d) Agricultural banks. — Some of the employers' associations have so established agricultural banks. We may mention La Banca Coopediva dell' Associazione Agraria Parmense, which grants loans only to its members but accepts savings deposits from outsiders.

The Bank limits its operations to agricultural credit, thus favouring he return to the land of a great part of the savings made on it. It was legally onstituted on November 7th., 1908, as a limited liability society with unmited capital, issuing shares at the nominal value of 50 frs. At its start, had 196 members with a capital of 40,750 frs. On December 31st.,

913, there were 1,664 members with a capital in shares of 231,950 frs. and reserve fund of 47,520 frs. The deposits held amounted to 3,072,395 frs. and the bills and acceptances to 1.979,861 frs.

We must also mention the Banca delle Associazioni Agrarie di Rovigo, stablished November 1st., 1911, with a fixed capital of a million frs. and a aid up capital of 97.755 frs. It is open for all business; it gives discount, ans and advances, accepts bills and coupons and receives deposits, p. ying interest.

On November 30th., 1913, its paid up capital amounted to 150,000 frs. and the total business of the bank to 1,807,760 frs.

(e) Various co-operative and mutual societies in the neighbourhood of Parma. — Also in this district the propaganda of the employers' societies a favour of co-operation and mutuality has had encouraging results. We hall mention two characteristic institutes:

The Fondo di Previdenza, a society of mutual aid for workmen, for the rant of daily subsidies in cases of illness, maternity, involuntary unemloyment etc. Its members are of two classes, actual workmen who ay 10 centimes per month, and free contributors, such as, proprietors and agriculturists, who each pay 5 frs. per annum. The bank has at its isposal a capital of about 27,000 frs. increased, as well as by the above tentioned contributions, by 10 % of the annual profits of the Co-operative gricultural Bank of Parma. During 1912, it granted about 270 subsidies, mounting to a total of 6,000 frs.

La Cooperativa Agricola per la Trebbiatura: at Fontanellato, the Agrari" have formed a co-operative society for threshing grain, with lares of 50 frs. and they have been able to acquire two threshing outfits.

Mutual Livestock Insurance Societies. — In the province of p_{arms} numerous societies of this nature have arisen on the initiave of the p_{arms} Agricultural Association. They have given very satisfactory results.

(f) Il Consorsio Macchine Agrarie di Ravenna. — Promoted by the Agricultural Association of Ravenna, it proposes to acquire on its own account threshing machines for wheat, oats and rice etc. and any others that may be required, to employ such machines on its own account, and to take such initiative as may directly or indirectly tend to the development of agricultural machinery and of agriculture generally.

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Part. II: Insurance and Thrift

FRANCE.

SOME FORMS OF MUTUAL INSURANCE AGAINST ACCIDENTS IN AGRICULTURAL LABOUR.

France has not yet solved the problem of insurance against accidents agricultural labour by any law, but at the present moment many of the mers are seriously considering their liability in case of accidents befalling see they employ. They are liable whenever an injured employee can call the application of the general provisions of the Civil Code on account the fault or negligence of the employer, as well as in the case of accidents puring in the use of machinery in farm work (Law of 1899).

In the Revue des Sciences Politiques of February 15th., 1914, M. Da-# Zolla gives two interesting instances of the establishment of insurance heries to meet this liability.

The first is provided by the department of Vienne, where, in 1909, a in number of farmers formed a mutual insurance society having it is object:

1st. To insure agricultural employers against accidents during ur for which they might be considered liable and also to insure the less themselves and their families.

2nd. To offer paid employees security similar to that granted to ory employees by the law of 1898.

3rd. To establish a tariff varying with the method of farming, the s of farms and rate of wages in different districts.

This last paragraph requires some explanation, in order that a clear of the difficulty of the problem may be formed.

The contribution paid by each farmer insured must be in proportion the risk he runs or causes other members of the society to run.

These risks evidently vary with the number of employees, with the it or less dangerous nature of the work, and with the rate of wages, these must serve as a basis for the amount of the claims allowed, that is ay for the calculation of the risks for which the society accepts liability place of the individual employers.

animals etc:

The amount of work (number of days' labour per hectare) varies with the kind of crop, that is to say, with the ordinary method of cultivation, a arable land, meadows, vineyards, gardens, woods, etc. etc.

In the Vienne Society, agricultural risks were classified under three head.

A. Ordinary risks. — Work done with simple implements such.

spades, pickaxes, pitchforks, wheel-barrows, and work done without too B. Serious risks. — Labour performed with animals and simple to chinery such as harrowing, ploughing, carting and risks in the care

C. Extraordinary Risks. — Labour performed with machines (works) by petroleum, steam or electricity), or by complicated machinery apparatus, such as mowing, reaping, threshing etc.

The risks to be assigned to each class of farms were fixed after careful analysis of the labour connected with the different classes.

The principal classes of holdings dealt with were as under: arable land; vineyards; market-gardens and nurseries; natural grass-lands; meadon and orchards; woodland and copses; moors, heaths, ponds... For eath of these classes the rate of insurance per hectare was fixed as follow:

Ist	division:	Arable lands			fr. 1.00
2 nd	"	Vineyards			" I.30
3^{rd}	"	Market gardens, & horticulture			7.50
4th	"	Grass land			" 0.30
5 th	,,	Meadows and orchards			
6th	"	Woods and copses			
7 th	"	Moors, heaths etc			

This tariff is not applicable to risks incurred through use of machine for such risks there are private contracts and special tariffs.

Provision was made for the modification of the tariff under cert conditions or for certain kinds of farming. Special rates are charge for instance, in the case of domestic servants, the rearing of m breeding stock or the exploitation of ponds. There is special insurate for proprietors of land cultivated by metayers, for cases involving the liability of both landowner and tenant.

The Vienne Society has also arranged for the division of profits or, speak more exactly, for the division of the excess of the receipts over the expenditure; 25 % is assigned to the foremen, to encourage them a stricter supervision to prevent accidents or abuses; 75 % is reserved the benefit of those members in whose accounts the contributions show net excess over any claims allowed to them. It therefore follows the each member has a direct personal interest in the reduction of the expens of the Society.

The Board of Management has even decided to grant (after period of trial) a reduction of his contribution to any member who we engage to grant his employees a share in the profits he receives. The exployees will thus have an interest in the reduction of the expenditure the Society.

The Society guarantees the following compensations: Ist., In case of death, 1,500 fr. permanent disablement, 3,000 fr:

3rd., "" temporary disablement, an amount equal to the half ne employee's daily wages.

The society also guarantees the expenses for medical attendance, icines and funerals. Provision is made for the employer's liability insurin case of fault or negligence of the employer), by means of a surpayment, in proportion to the maximum liability and fixed by the y of each member. For the security required by law and for the expenses of the initial

lishment of the society, a sum of 50,000 fr. was subscribed under the of bonds at 4 %, issued at 100 frs. The following interesting details we reproduce from the report read e general meeting of 1913:

The number of members and their contributions were as follows:

								ber of Members	Contribution Paid
Эп " "	December ","	1911 1910	•	•	:	:		372 1,166 1,891 3,191	10,504 fr. 32,582 '' 54,014 '' 92,595 ''

So we see that the Poitou Mutual Society has been very successful. The amounts paid for claims and medicines etc. were.

in	1909.		•.				1,408 fr.
"	1910.						6.804 "
	1911.	٠	٠	٠	•		18,464 "
"	1912.						31,076 "

Altogether the Poitou Society has very happily solved the problem ore it by appealing to the spirit of mutual aid and joint interest, which this field only waits for the initiative of private individuals. The Mutual Society in Sarthe was founded seven years ago, on a basis

newhat different, but not less worthy of attention.

It provides: 1st., a specal minimum amount only for the employees of an ared employer (he and his family being excluded) and only for medical enses and medicines, and compensation solely for temporary infirmity or th; 2nd, for increasingly numerous risks incurred by the employer or his illy, temporary disablement of his labourers or domestic servants ough accidents in their work, similar disablement of the employer

nembers of his family, the employer's legal liability, and risks incurred ough the use of machinery etc. The contribution increases with the ension of the insurance and the increase of the risks, and if the insurance extended to include the employer himself and not limited to his employees. But the insured person may contribute according to his convenience, his personal resources and his special situation if it protects him from certain risks. The elasticity of these rules is very remarkable and well worthy of attention.

The following are the minimum premiums payable:

Per	hectare of	arable land .					fr.	0.80
"	31 - 7132	vineyard					,,	0.90
"	", ",	meadow					"	0.45
"	33 33	wood or moor		٠			**	0.60

But the claims granted

up to o nectares				to		10
from 16 to 12 hectares .			n	*	**	13
12 hectares and upwards.			»	*	"	16

Every special risk in addition, i. e. 1st, accidents to the employer one of his family; 2nd, claims paid to the employees in consequence temporary disablement; 3rd, claims paid to the employer or to any one his family for similar disablement; requires a supplementary payment;

Per			arable land fr.	
"	11	"	vineyard "	0.35
"	11	"	meadow "	0.15
"	29	"	wood and moor "	0.20

Altogether the cost of the minimum insurance, together with the three supplementary payments above mentioned, is not very great. It does not exceed:

			arable land								
			vineyard .	•	٠	٠	٠	•	٠		1.95
"	"	"	meadow							,,	0.90
,,	33	33	moor							11	T 20

For 6 hectares of cultivated land the total minimum contribution amounts to 19 francs, and for a farm of from 6 to 12 hectares it would not be less than 25 francs. This is an inconsiderable expense, if it is borne in mind that it includes the insurance of the employer and his family, as well as of his servants or his temporary employees.

Of course it is necessary to take into account the amount of the compensation granted in case of accidents. This amounts to 2,000 francs in case of death or of permanent and absolute disablement; to 1,000 francs in case of very serious accident, such as the loss of the use of a limb; to 500 francs for less serious injuries.

The daily rate of compensation immediately succeeding an accident ich has caused disablement for more than three days, is as follows; rancs per day for employers; 1.25 fr. for their wives; 1.50 fr. for male ployees above the age of sixteen, and one franc for women.

In every case after the ninetieth day the allowance is reduced by one

If, and ceases after 180 days.

The Society of Sarthe will not pay compensation in case of accidents ulting from "an intention to cause an accident" or from neglect of laws

d regulations intended to ensure the safety of persons, and rules for the magement of horses and vehicles. Nor will the Society undertake as of accidents due to intoxication, madness, paralysis, quarrels, games

betting. The services rendered by the Society of Sarthe are apparent from the tent of its transactions. Its characteristic feature is clearly the insurance the employer, and it is therefore very desirable to ascertain to what exnt employers have benefited by its provisions. The report presented to egeneral meeting of 1912 gives information on this point. During that ar, out of 605 accidents, 287 were accidents to employers or their milies. Claims were paid for disablement to the amount of 14,209 frs. d for medical expenses or medicines 9,580 francs were paid, making a al of 23,790 francs against 16,000 francs granted only to paid embyees. On the whole, those who have chiefly benefited by this intitution the employers, generally small farmers. The department of Sarthe in no way different from other agricultural districts as regards the diibution of the kinds of farms or holdings. It is therefore most probable, not certain, that everywhere in France the small farmer would not only ure his labourers but himself, if there were a mutual society offering n the same advantages as those within reach of the farmers of Sarthe. is is an important suggestion which should be borne in mind.

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Part III: Credit

HUNGARY.

THE PRINCIPAL RURAL LAND CREDIT INSTITUTES IN HUNGARY

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In a former article (I) we observed that the Hungarian legislation on I credit attempted, by a system of liberty, to attract capital to investits benefiting landed property and to facilitate the foundation of financial
eties to grant loans on mortgage at fair rates, not so much because obd by legislative provisions, but because of the competition being open.
object of the restrictions imposed by the law was to guarantee the proper
king of the institutes so that the land bonds issued by them might be
received by capitalists on the market. But this system of liberty,
encouraged the foundation of land credit institutes, did not confer on
farmers all the benefits anticipated.

Under the circumstances, the legislature judged it expedient to interin behalf of rural land credit with the law XV of August 8th., 1911,

t) See Bulletin of Economic and Social Intelligence, No. 1. January, 1913: "Outlines and Credit Legislation and Organisation in Hungary", pp. 101-111.

contributing to the foundation of the National Confederation of L_{and} C_{rel} it Institutes, with which we have already dealt (1), together with the Run garian Land Credit Institute, the "National Credit Institute for Small Landowners" and the "Central National Mutual Credit Society." The Confederation is an institution of public utility, which, in addition to providing credit, is bound by law to encourage the subdivision of land, home colonisation, the building of houses for agricultural labourers, the purchase of public grazing grounds and landed estate etc.

The Confederation must further promote dismortgaging by means of the life insurance of the debtor, in the manner already indicated by us (2)

We shall now complete our previous articles by some consideration in regard to the principal Hungarian institutes for the grant of land cred it, which may be classified under the three following heads: co-operating land credit associations; mortgage banks and banks for mixed purposes limited by shares; mixed savings banks.

§ 1. CO-OPERATIVE LAND CREDIT ASSOCIATIONS.

There are in Hungary three land credit institutions on co-operation lines: (1) The Hungarian Land Credit Institute, of Budapest; (2) The National Land Credit Institute for Small Landowners of Budapest; (3) The Land Credit Institute of Nagy Szeben.

I. The Hungarain Land Credit Institut of Budapest began work o

July 1st., 1863.

It is an association of landed proprietors. The members are jointly and severally liable for the engagements of the society, in proportion however, to the amount of the loans contracted by each. They manage the institute and are divided into two classes, foundation and ordinary members.

The foundation members are the 209 landowners who obtained the con cession to constitute the Institute and, in conformity with the provision in the rules, contributed to a guarantee fund of at least 1,000,000 floring in cash or in bonds and formed the original organisation of the Institute itself.

All the landed proprietors of Hungary to whom loans have been grant ed are ordinary members. In 1883, the Hungarian Government becames ordinary member on contracting a loan for 7,000,000 crs. on mortgage real estate.

The guarantee fund formed by the foundation members amounted to 1,177,000 fls., but as the State has contributed 500,000 fls., it is 100

⁽¹⁾ See Bulletin of Economic and Social Intelligence, No. 2, 1912. National Confeder ation of Land Credit Institutes in Hungary.

⁽²⁾ Life Insurance as a Means of Promoting Dismortgaging and Acquisition of Land n the Bulletin of Economic and Social Intelligence, August, 1912. pp. 129 et seqq.

354,000 crs. The foundation members were all nobles. The contribon was at least 5,000 fls.; 10 % paid up in cash and 90 % in bonds. hese bonds were gradually redeemed as the reserve fund was formed, so at, in 1876, %/10 the guarantee fund had been returned to the found-ion members. The last teuth is still retained and bears interest at 5 %.

The foundation shares can only be transferred with the consent of meeting of foundation members, and the regulations with regard to is are very strict.

From the start, the founders had special rights in connection with the nervision and management of the institute. In 1880, the rules sanctioned special meeting of foundation members, in addition to the other adminisative authorities of the institute. This meeting has the right to submit hree names to the Committee of Supervision (Board of Directors) for the hoice of the managing director, to nominate 18 of the 36 members of this immittee and send a representative to vote at the general meeting. Of he ordinary members (mortgagers), only those who have contracted a nan of at least 100,000 crs. with the institute may vote at the meetings.

From the first, the State has favoured this institute, granting it aditations in the matter of legal procedure (orders of August 2nd. and entember 18th., 1863) and exemptions from stamp duties (order of line 15th., 1863) and recognising its bonds as securities in which minors'

apital may be invested.

Besides this, the institute enjoys all the privileges granted to the Auto Hungarian Bank by the Law XIV of November 29th., 1879, and the law XI of 1876 rendered valid certain provisions in its rules not in acordance with the regulations for Co-operative Societies in the Hungarian ommercial Code.

The loans are granted to the land holders in the form of bonds up to namount of not more than half the value of the land mortgaged. The lebtor may choose the type of bonds he prefers and may claim that the intitute must sell him its bonds, without charging commission. Each borrower bust deposit I % of the loan received to form a special mutual solidarity md. On the extinction of the loan, the amount thus deposited is withfawn by the member, together with the simple interest accruing.

The borrower does not now contribute to the working expenses, but by a small amount (0.06 %) to the reserve fund. But at the start his untribution to the working expenses was 1/4 %.

In 1888, the institute conducted credit operations to facilitate the rectication of the course of streams and other works of farm improvement. porder to facilitate these operations, by law XXV of June 26th., 1889, the hate exempted the bonds issued in this connection from stamp duty and ther taxation, but fixed the rate of interest at not more than 4 3/4 %, which is 1/4 %, contribution to working expenses. The annuities due to the institute were considered as preference credits, taking precedence of the state and the state W other mortgage claim, and only yielding precedence to the State and ommunal taxes.

The Hungarian Land Credit Institute began its career with the issue of land and other bonds. The latter were given to land owners who contracted short term loans, for 15 % of the value of the mortgage if the loan was for 5 years and for 25 % if it was for 10 years. Up to 1870, bond at 6 % had been issued up to the amount of 1,070,000 florins. The law bonds bore interest at 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ % and were redeemable in paper. But since the paper circulation with its fluctuations in value affected the price of securities and they also had only a limited sale, in 1872 bonds were issued redeemable in silver in order that they might find purchasers abroad In more recent years an attempt has been made to place land bonds redeemable in gold in Germany but it was not crowned with success.

The price of the bonds redeemable in paper varied in the ten y_{eag} 1871-1880 from 81 to 87, so that the borrower had really to pay a rate of about 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ % not including sinking fund.

On February 1st., 1877, the Institute issued land bonds redeemable in paper at 5 % and so reduced the contribution the borrowers had to pay to working expenses from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{8}$ %; in 1880 it issued bonds at $\frac{4}{2}$ %, which were placed in Vienna and at Frankfort. In 1887 it began to issue bonds at 4 %. In 1895 the older bonds at high interest were converted, on payment of a premium, into bonds at 4 %. With this conversion, which was fully successful, was associated an issue of land bonds at 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ %, which had already been decided on three years before and which was made abroad at the average price of 91.

The amount of the mortgage loans rose at the end of 1910 to 381,929,357 crowns as against 284,748,759 crs. lent in 1900. In addition to this on December 31st., 1910, the institute had conducted improvement credit business to the amount of about 75,000,000 crs.

At that date the institute had a special guarantee for its bonds in reserve fund of 18,884,390 crs., for mortgage loans, another of 8,431,520 crs for improvement loans and a mutual solidarity fund of 5,577,526 crs. The net profits accumulated since the foundation of the institute amounted to 14,426,795, crs. since the whole of the credit balance had to go to increase the capital of the institute even after the special reserve funds contemplated in the rules have been formed. Thus the total capital (including the contributions of the foundation members and of the State) amounted in 1910 to 48,655,641 crs., or 10 % of the Institute bonds.

We must finally observe that the Hungarian Land Credit Institute, in addition to land credit operations, also engages in other business, deposit business, discounting etc.

The National Land Credit Institute for Small Landowners was
founded at Budapest in 1879 and the State favoured its foundation with
a grant of 500,000 florins.

The privileges, conferred by Law XXXIV of June 8th., 1871 on the Hungarian Land Credit Institute, were extended to this Institute. Here also we find two classes of members, foundation and ordinary members. The foundation members are those contributing to a guarantee fund with share of 100, 500 or 5,000 florins. They are only liable up to the amount of

subscribed shares. Of course the debtors are members with joint

The foundation members have right to vote (1,2 or 5 votes according the number of their shares) in the general meeting of the institute, while ordinary members have only one vote for every 250,000 florins lent

The management is entrusted to a president and a vice-president, the at the general meeting, assisted by 3 councillors. Besides this board management, there is a committee of 9 members for the examination of counts.

The loans at first, might not exceed 12,000 florins. The limit was tended in 1883 to 20,000 and in 1887 to 40,000 florins: later on, in 1893 in behalf of the kind was abolished. Yet the work of the instituention, in proof of this, that, in 1910, 54,977 loans on mortgage had been the loans are granted up to half the value of the mortgaged land.

t, with the object of offering the small landowners a larger credit, in 5 the institute entered into a special agreement with the Central in ional Mutual Credit Society. The two associations have undertaken to it loans up to 75% of the value of the mortgaged property, the national ittle granting loans for 50% and the Central Society for the batty, act as intermediaries and sureties for the loans granted by the two the mentioned above

In addition, the National Institute, by Law XXXII of 1897, began ting loans for improvements and for home colonisation and, in 1911, in the new "National Confederation of Hungarian Land Credit Institutes." the beginning, the Land Credit Institute for Small Landowners investigated.

the beginning, the Land Credit Institute for Small Landowners issued land as at $5\frac{1}{2}$ %. Since the payments into sinking fund and the contribute to working expenses were both 1%, the annuities the debtors to pay amounted to $7\frac{1}{2}$ %. In 1886 bonds were issued at 5% and the contributions to working expenses were the payments into sinking fund the contributions to working expenses were reduced to the half. The

bor's contribution to working expenses was then reduced in 1893 to ½ % lin 1903 an issue of bonds at 4 % was made.

It is just since this date that the business of this institute has been king rapid progress. The loans in land bonds rose from 69,995,670 crs. 1904, to 157,798, 706 crs. in 1910, while those in cash rose from 132,010 crs. 490,781 crs. At the end of 1910, taking into account 11,000,000 crs. improvement loans, one might calculate the total amount of the loans like by the institute at about 170,000,000 crs. The reserve fund increased

m 6,415,618 crs. in 1904 to 12,391,149 crs. in 1910.

3.— The Land Credit Institute at Nagy-Szeben, founded in 1870 on the inlive of the Saxon Agricultural Association of Erdély (Transylvania),
tat first with some difficulties, due partly to the poverty of the region in

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which it had to work and partly to the formal exactions of the Hungarian Government for the better guarantee of its good working. But after the formation of a working capital of 100,000 florins, of which 30 % is paid up the land bonds of the institute were admitted on the Pest Exchange [Jul 25th., 1872],, and on that of Vienna (November 24th.) and the rules were approved in their first form by the Agricultural Department (September 6th 1873). The Rules as amended on April 18th., 1876, in consequence of the Commercial Code coming into operation, define the co-operative character of this institute and its scope, which is that of facilitating the use of mortgag credit for its members.

In this institute, as in the two previously dealt with, we find two class es of members; the foundation and the ordinary members. The gener meeting is attended, in addition to these two classes of persons, also by creditors, who are bondholders, and have a right to one vote for every 10,00 fls. worth of bonds issued, while the Saxon Agricultural Association of Erdel has a right to five votes.

The foundation members, who have subscribed shares to form the working capital, receive not merely the interest on these shares, calculate at 6%, but also a dividend equal to the tenth part of the net balance to each working year. This dividend was, however, abolished in 1883 and the division of the profits was definitely regulated by the Rules of 1993 as follows:

Ten per cent of the net profits is placed at the disposal of the Erdel Saxon Agricultural Association. Another 10% must be distributed amon the members of the board of management and the commissioners of accounts in the proportion established at the general meeting. Half the profits must be placed to the reserve fund. The balance, 30%, may used for purposes of public utility or to increase the reserve fund. We have shown above that the initial capital did not amount to more

than 100,000 florins, of which 30 % was paid up. But as the Law XXXV of 1876 ordered that the issue of land bonds must be guaranteed by th formation of a special fund of 200,000 crs. to cover the obligations toward bondholders, and the Institute of which we are speaking had not the capita necessary for the purpose, it had to suspend the issue of land bonds for som years and provide for the demand of mortgage loans out of the money de posited with it by the local population. But in 1879 the guarante fund required was already formed and then the issue of bonds was resumed.

The mortgage loans have always been granted and paid up to the

full nominal value of the land bonds without taking into account the current price on the exchange, except for the deduction of 1 % for the reserve fund.

The period for repayment was at first very short and the condition of the loans consequently rather burdensome. Thus, the loans granted it 1879 could not be for periods longer than 17 years and the annual instatements amounted to 9.5 %; in 1880 the term for repayment was prolonge to 27 years, and the instalments were 8.2 %. The business, therefore, and made slow progress up to 1885, when loans were made redeemable in 3

ars and the instalments were reduced to 7.5 %. The conditions were odified successively in 1887 and 1893. In the latter year the instalments we fixed at 6 % for loans repayable in 40 ½ years. In 1903, the Institute introduced a type of loan redeemable in 50 years. The first issue of land bonds was made in 1876. Notwithstanding at these bonds gave right to interest at 5 ½% and a premium of 20% at date frepayment, they were only quoted at from 66 to 69. It was therefore concerning the second issue at 6% and reduce the premium to

dered necessary to make a second issue at 6% and reduce the premium to bid scries was issued in 1881 redeemable in 27 years, at the same rate of the fourth series was issued in 1884 at 5 ½%, redeemable in 30 ½ since at that date the land bonds of this institution.

ears. Since at that date the land bonds of this institute were accepted security by the Government and the Austro-Hungarian Bank at Vienna, the prices continually rose, so that in 1887 there could be issued at par a para. In 1902 the seventh issue was made, at 4 ½, both redeemable in 40 ½ essary, when the eighth issue was made, to raise the rate to 4½ %. These to last series were reedemable in 50 years.

At the end of 1910, there were bonds in circulation to the amount of 0,56,800 crowns. The bonds at 4 ½ % had a nominal value of 56,667,900 ms.; those at 4 % a value of 12,120,100 crs. and those at 5 % of 1,848,800 ms. At the same date the reserve fund amounted to 2,056,619 crs. (inding the initial capital of 200,000, crs.), while the special guarantee md for the circulation of the land bonds amounted to 3,700,007 crs. and reguarantee fund against depreciation of the bonds to 70,000 crs.

\S 2. Mortgage banks and banks for mixed purposes, limited by shares

Of the pure type of mortgage bank, so wide spread in other countries, are is only one example in Hungary. Therefore we think it well to insule in this section all financial institutes limited by shares, engaging, we if it does not appear so from their title, at once in mortgage credit and dinary banking business.

I.—The Hungarian Mortgage Bank of Park to the countries.

I.—The Hungarian Mortgage Bank at Budapest founded in 1869, is the making direct loans to individual landowners, but to act as a making direct loans to individual landowners, but to act as a making direct loans to individual landowners, but to act as a making direct loans to individual landowners, but to act as a making direct loans to insurance against losses in mortgage business.

The share capital was fixed at 2,000,000 florins, 600,000 fls. paid up. Wery debtor had by the rules to pay 5 % of the amounts borrowed into a serve fund or deposit securities or bonds for an equivalent amount. The und thus formed was intended to cover losses in the banking business.

The first board of directors was not successful in carrying out the abo programme and the special general meeting of February, 1881 decided on \mathfrak{g} complete reorganisation of the institute.

It was also decided that it must do communal credit busines Consequently, the share capital was increased to 10,300,000 fls. and a gree

impetus was given to the business of the society.

After 10 years' work, in fact, in 1881 the total lent amounted to co 7,188,851; in 1891 it had increased to crs. 36,854,605. At the beginnin of its career, the bank granted rural mortgage loans almost exclusively; late it has continually extended its urban business, so that at the end of $I_{\rm III}$ about 60 % of the business was represented by rural loans and 40 % b urban loans. In fact, at that date, of 278,805,946 fis. lent on the guarante of mortgages 180,000,000 fls. represented value of rural mortgages and 122,000.000 that of urban mortgages.

The communal loans amounted to 306,045,033 fls.

In 1901 the Hungarian Mortgage Bank appreciably extended its in fluence on the Hungarian mortgage market by the purchase of the greater number of the shares of the New Hungarian Agricultural Credit and Inprovement Bank, of which we shall now give some account.

2. — The Hungarian Agricultural Credit and Improvement Bank was founded at Budapest in 1895 with a capital of 24,000,000 crowns, under the form of a society limited by shares, with the object of favouring the interest of agriculture, increasing the means of communication, and promoting the formation of co-operative societies, extending credit and facilitating improvement works.

The progress of this bank has been rapid enough, especially since 1901 At that date the mortgage loans amounted to 28,633,189 crs.; in 1910 the had increased to 70,837,738 crs., of which 62,530,796 crs. represented rural loans.

This institute has also made communal loans (to the amount of 6,515,568 crs. in 1910), loans for the reconstitution of vineyards (for 11,860,336 crs.), loans for viticulture (11,863,200 crs.) and railway loans 27,517,600 crs.). The reserve fund amounted in 1910 to 2,705,683 crs.

3. — Central Mortgage Bank of the Hungarian Savings Banks. — The idea of founding this institute, realised in 1892, was due to the consideration of two points characteristic of the needs of mortgage credit in Hungary, on the one hand, the necessity of decentralising the land credit institutes in a country in which there are large rural regions not well provided with eas means of communication, and, on the other hand, that of centralising th issue of land bonds to facilitate their being placed on the large nations and foreign central financial markets. It was precisely a large number of small credit institutes, savings banks, people's banks etc., that made provision for the foundation of this Central Bank with a capital of 4,000,000 crowns.

This Bank has rendered considerable services to the small local institutes, undertaking for them such mortgage loans as the nature of these institutes did not fit them for. The best proof of the success of this institution is n in the great development of its business, the amount of which is alstequal to that done by the National Credit Institute for Small Landown. In fact, on December 31st., 1910, the mortgage loans amounted to out 164,600,080 crs., and the communal loans to 30,085,796 crs. The pital at the same date amounted to 20,000,000 crs; the reserve fund to \$4,624 crs. and the special guarantee fund for land bonds to 8,620,454 crs. The progress made by this institute has been favoured by various premment measures, the object of which is to facilitate the transfer of

orgages, the transmission of land bonds, and the grant of some fiscal cilitations.

4.—The Hungarian Commercial Bank of Pest was founded in 1845. At stit did not specially propose to conduct mortgage credit business. The undation of the Hungarian Land Credit Institute suggested the idea of stituting an urban mortgage credit department in connection with the undercial bank.

Since the business of this department made little progress, as the contions of the loans were too burdensome, in 1882 it was decided to include hal mortgage credit within the scope of the Bank. In that year an issue of model bonds was made at 5%, which largely contributed to the progress of ortgage business. Before that date the institute had issued bonds at and at 5½%. In 1886 it began to issue bonds at 4½% and in 1893 at %. The progress of the business is seen from the following figures. At end of 1910 the amount of the mortgage loans was 245,457,745 crs. and this 82,303,810 crs. were secured on rural estate. At the same date, there re bonds at 4½% in circulation, of the nominal value of 100,341,800

and bonds at 4%, of the nominal value of 146,857,600 crs. In addition to ding on mortgage, this bank had lent 236,594,941 crs. to communes. A very large part of the business of this bank is commercial, so that it as the third place among the large Hungarian banks limited by shares.

5.— The Hungarian Discount Bank at Budapest is of less importance for almortgage credit than the banks above mentioned. Founded in 1860 reorganised in 1881, it only began its mortgage credit business in 1902, at it issued bonds at 4 %. In 1907 there was an issue of a new as at 4 ½%. The mortgage loans in 1910 amounted to 74,331.531

he bonds in circulation was 74,598,400 ers.
Some savings banks also call for mention among the land credit

,28,862,933 crs. being granted in favour of rural estate. The amount

6.— The General Bank of Nagy Szeben, founded in 1841, originally d not intend to conduct mortgage credit business. It began to do so in 87. Through wise management, the mortgage loans made by this bank we now reached the comparatively large sum of 80,700,190 crs. The d bonds are for the most part of the 4 ½ % type (59,931,300 crs.).

7. — The General Savings Bank of Brasso founded in 1835, was informed into a society limited by shares at the end of 1896, but its issue land bonds only dates from 1901, so that in 1910 its mortgage loans only lounted to 31,139,326 crs.

Finally, of less importance are the "Albina" Loan and Savings Instite, founded at NagySzeben in 1872 by the Roumanian population of Hungary, with total mortgage loans amounting to 11,093,355 crs., the Erdgy Mortgage Bank, founded at Kolosvar in 1891, with mortgage loans amounting to 7,096,914 crs. and the Land Institute of the Erdély Savings Banks, founded at Mediasch in 1862, with, on December 31st., 1910, mortgage loans amounting to 7,435,916 crs.

§ 3. MIXED SAVINGS BANKS.

Under this name we find ten societies limited by shares conducting financial operations of various character, but working chiefly as savings banks. They began gradually to issue land bonds as the increase of their loan business threatened to make it difficult to realise their capital promptly.

Some of these institutes have considerably developed their mortgage business, both by means of their own capital, and the issue of land bonds But since these savings banks present no special interest in respect to their work as land credit institutes, we limit ourselves to mentioning their names, the year of their foundation, and their head quarters.

The savings banks we refer to are: 1st. First National Saving Association, founded at Budapest in 1840, which began issuing land bonds in 1882; 2nd. Hungarian National Central Savings Bank, founded in Budapest in 1872, which issued its first land bonds at 4 1/2 % 1888; 3rd. United Savings Bank of Budapest (Egyesült Budapest fovinos takarékbénztár) founded in 1846, which in 1874 began issuing land bonds at 6 %; 4th. Budapest Savings Bank (Society limited by Share) (Belvárosi takarékpénztár R. T.), founded in 1882, which began its mortgage business in 1805 with the issue of bonds at 41/2%; 5th. General Hungarian Savings Bank (Society limited by Shares) founded in 1881 at Budapest, which began in 1904 to lend by means of issue of bonds at 4%; 6th. First Temesvar Savings Bank, founded in 1846, which made its first issue of bonds at 5% and 4 1/2% on January 1st., 1889; 7th. Savings Bank of the City of Arad, founded in 1888, which commenced mortgage business in 1890 with the issue of bonds at 5 % and a premium of 10%; 8th. Savings Bank of the County of Arad, founded in 1870, which began mortgage business in 1868. with the issue of bonds at 4 1/2 %; 9th. First Debreczen Savings Bank founded in 1846, which began only fifty years later to issue bonds at 4 ½ %; 10th. First Croatian Savings Bank, founded in 1846, which issued land bonds in 1903 at 4 and 4 ½ %.

§ 4. CONCLUSION.

Summarising the principal impressions gained from the study of the ganisation of land credit in Hungary we observe two characteristic facts, lat strike the attention of the impartial observer.

First of all we must remark the large quantity of land bonds issued, presenting about 70 % of the mortgage debt of Hungary, a proportion not tained in any other European country. This may be considered to be indicated that the regime of liberty established by the Hungarian laws on a credit institutes.

The other fact characteristic of the organisation of land credit in ungary is the proponderance of the mixed financial institutes in proport to the institutes limiting their action to mortgage business alone. In the most of the institutes that issue land bonds are ordinary banks with the business and savings banks only partly engaged in mortgage with business.

SWEDEN.

THE ORGANISATION OF SAVINGS BANKS IN SWEDEN AND THE INVESTMENT OF THEIR CAPITAL.

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§ I. SWEDISH INSTITUTIONS FOR THE COLLECTION OF POPULAR SAVING

Not later than the end of the eighteenth century did savings banks matheir appearance in many countries. Their object was the safe keeping a profitable investment of money which its possessors could not and dared invest directly in productive business. Up to that period, the employment capital in industry, commerce and agriculture was relatively rare and unce ain. In modern times the necessity for capital has increased, and at

and time the institutions for encouraging, collecting, and investing savings ave multiplied. Saving is no longer the expression of individual forethought; has become the result of collective effort. The working and lower midle classes put their collected savings into leagues for defence of their intersts. mutual aid societies, co-operative societies for credit, distribution. milding, etc., the moneyed classes into insurance companies and banks.

It becomes, however, more and more difficult to follow these various arms of accumulation, and to draw up statistics of the annual saving nade by a nation. Nor is it always possible in the absence of adequate tatistics to calculate the amount of the capital saved every year by the ifferent classes of society, and to study the annual distribution of savings mong the various investments. In many countries, Sweden among the rest, means are wanting for investigating questions concerning the interests

of agriculture in relation to the savings banks. In studying the question of saving in Sweden, as we have done in the case of other countries, it will be understood then that we must limit ourselves to the investigation of those institutions of which the working is directed or may be directed to the benefit of agriculture and the agricultural

Except the savings banks, the institutions which are most important

s collectors of the savings of the people are the people's banks and the de-

posit banks instituted by the ordinary banking establishments. The ordinary and postal savings banks and the people's banks are the ost important for our purpose, and of these we shall speak more in detail

the following paragraphs. For the present we shall confine ourselves to giving a few notes on the

ivings collected by the ordinary Banksing Establishments. These instituons, established as societies limited by shares to carry on real banking

usiness, began in 1877 to compete with the Savings Banks. For the first renty years the amounts they collected were inconsiderable, but they areased perceptibly during the following years. In 1911 the savings eposited in the banks limited by shares amounted to 303,107,000 crowns,

and the average amount in each bank book was 369 crowns (1). We can not, however, ascertain what classes have contributed to he formation of this capital and to what amount each class has done so,

or what proportion of the sums invested by each brings in a profit. It may, however, be affirmed, in view of the fact that these banks work industrial and commercial centres, that the savings are made more specially by the urban population, and also that the greater part of

the sums deposited by the rural population is absorbed in the business of

he urban centres. At the close of 1910, the total amount of the loans made by ordinary Bank-Establishments with capital collected by them was 1,490,500,000 crowns, 47,000,000 crs. of which represented mortgage loans, and about 195,500,000 rs, loans on personal guarantee.

⁽¹⁾ The Swedish crown of 100 ore is equal at par to 1.389 francs.

§ 2. ORDINARY SAVINGS BANKS.

The first savings bank in Sweden was founded at Gothenburg in 180 In the following year the Savings Bank of Stockholm (Stockholms 81ta sparbank) was established, and during the following years of the same 1ta ade similar institutions arose in most of the provinces (Län), except in the north where there was nothing of the kind till towards the middle of the last century. These banks reached their fullest development in the province of Molmöhus at the southern extremity of the peninsula, where the population is most numerous (above 460,000 inhabitants) and most dense (about per square kilometre in 1900) and where more than 80% of the area arable. In this Lan in 1850 there were 14 large savings-banks.

The successive increase in these institutions is shown by the following figures giving the number of savings banks in both town and country the end of each decade from 1830 to 1910.

Table I. — Number of Ordinary Savings Banks in Sweden (1830-1910)

Year		1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Town		 22	46	56	71	89	93	9 9	103
Country		 3	14	30	80	146	258	27 9	285
	Total	25	60	86	151	235	351	378	388

From 1820 to 1910, savings banks to the number of 521 were estalished, of which number 436 (83.68 %) still existed on December 31st., 191 which is a high percentage.

The greater number of savings banks in country districts is explain by the tendency of the rural population to remain independent of the cit. They are not so numerous in the cities where the density of the population might seem to require them, because of the competition of ordinary banking establishments, which find it especially convenient in the cities to colk savings. Nevertheless in 1910, twenty-six urban savings banks have branches in the country.

In the northern provinces, owing to the sparse population, the pr

gress of these institutions has been much checked.

But with increased facilities for communication and the growing weal of the lower and middle classes, the proportion of savings banks to t population has increased. In 1830 there was a savings bank for eve 115,523 inhabitants, in 1850 one for every 40,495, in 1880 one for every 13,007 and in 1910, one for every 12.666. If we include the 416 has ches, there is now one bank for every 6,481 inhabitants.

We must now describe the origin of these banks, their economic at

legal nature and the rules by which they are governed.

They were at first established on the initiative and in the interest havate persons, without any aid or intervention from public authorities. 828-30, Parliament granted some of them a credit in the National Bank. nt 1840, some Chambers of Agriculture (Hushālluingssällskap) proed in their own provinces and under their own supervision the foundation he first so-called provincial savings banks, of which the chief object to be to collect the savings of agriculturists, especially in branches

Up to 1875 the idea prevailed in Sweden that the State should not at-

he country.

of to legislate for such institutions lest their development should be ered and the cost of their administration be increased. But since, in decade including the year 1870, numerous banks had arisen, some of had lost heavily for want of good administration, the idea of liberty up en prevailing had to yield to the evident necessity of protecting the interof depositors. Then came the law of 1875 which made it compulsory we greater publicity to the acts of the administration. This law, howin spite of successive modifications in 1888 and 1890 proved insufit to guarantee the healthy development of the banks, and it was prefore superseded on July 19th., 1892 by a new law still in force except

r an amendment introduced by law of May 25th., 1905 § 15. By the law of 1875 it was enacted that the savings banks, as they re given the character of institutions of public utility, must not pay ridends.

The above character was preserved by the law of 1892, by which it s declared essential that these banks should not divide profits among e founders or their heirs. The whole of the profits must go to the reserve fund, but, should this

eabove 10% of the savings, the Board of Management may appropriate surplus to increase the interest to depositors or to any other nose considered such as might stimulate economy, especially among the over classes. Where the rules permit, the Board may, with the conmence of the directors, assign one half of the net profits to some revolent object or to a work of public utility. These banks may not undertake any other debit business than that

receiving money at interest and paying it out on demand. A bank may not be established by fewer than twenty Swedish citizens,

h the permission of the competent authorities in the district where lesires to work. Except in special cases, the initial capital must not be than 2,000 crowns. The administrators (Hufvudmän), numbering from 20 to 50, may be

sen from among the founders, and may become directors. If the rules permit, the directors may receive an allowance to be dout of the interest on the capital of the bank.

But the administrators, even though also directors, may in no case eive remuneration of any kind.

The rules regarding investments are of special interest. The banks t not acquire real estate, except in case of necessity as payment of a $t_{\rm i}$ and they must sell it again as soon as an opportunity offers.

Loans must not be granted for longer than ten years, except those to by royal authority to communes or public bodies.

It is not necessary that there should be a written receipt for the lawhen it is guaranteed by the directors or by employees of the bank or the secured on government stock, general mortgage bank bonds or other precity safe security, or a mortgage on rural or urban real estate for amount of not less than half its value fixed according to the latest estima. Such real estate must be insured against fire.

To ensure the regularity of payments even at times when the deman of the depositors rise, it is laid down in the law that at least one tenth the savings must be invested in easily realisable personal estate or depited in the Bank of Sweden or in some other bank, the rules of which he been approved by the King.

There are special rules for the control of the administration by authorities, and for the deposit and withdrawal of savings.

In order that these institutions may be accessible to the greatest possinumber of persons, married women and young persons above the age 15 may do business with them without the authorisation of husbands parents.

Each bank is permitted by law to fix the minimum and maxim amounts of deposits it accepts.

The minimum deposit authorised by the rules varies according the bank, from 10 öre to 5 crowns. For the most part the minimum fixed at 25 öre. There are, however, 40 banks which have fixed the m imum at 50 öre, 148 at one crown and one bank at five crowns.

The maximum has been fixed by 58 banks at from 2,000 to 3,000 crow by 14 banks at 5,000 crowns and by 86 banks at 100,000 crowns. In the banks the maximum is 50,000 crowns

The banks must not give up the right to notice of demand for widrawal, lest crises should occur injurious to the creditors themselves, withese crowd for payment in moments of panic.

The banks are never permitted by Royal Decree to suspend paym even temporarily.

Notwithstanding the competition of similar institutions, such as Pos and Ordinary Banking Establishments, the ordinary savings banks hextended their operations, especially in the southern provinces where population is densest and agriculture is most important in comparise with other industries. In 1910 there were in Sweden 1,500,317 savibank books, and as at that date the population was calculated at 5,5224 there were 10 books for every 35 inhabitants (1). At the same date deposits amounted to 808,789,000 crowns, a considerable sum consider the wealth of the country, the number of the inhabitants and the exist of other institutes collecting savings. It means an average of 518 cm per book. The rate of interest paid to depositors, generally above 450

These figures are not absolutely correct, for in Sweden a person may have most one book in the ordinary savings banks.

igh when compared with that paid by private savings banks in most the European States. Nowithstanding this, the withdrawals in some re exceed the deposits. The following table shows the progress of the inary banks from 1860 to 1910 :

ABLE ___

	1		Deposits			Excess of	
Zenr	Number of Books	in millions of crowns	per Inhabitant (in crowns)	per Book (in crowns)	Number of Books per 1,000 Inhabi- tants	Deposits (+) or of Withdraw- als (—) (in 1,000 crowns)	Yearly Rate of Interest
	187,675	27.29	7	145	40		
	353,867	57. 3 0	14	162	49 85	+ 518	4.76
	762,638	146.07	32	192	167	+ 7,390	4.95
	1,072,735		57	256	224	- 3,690	4.85 3.85
	1,228,930		85	356	239	+ 2,893	4.58
• • •	1,560,317	808.79	146	518	282	+ 15,586	4.49

As these figures show, the absolute and relative importance of the deits, as well as of the number of books, have increased considerably during last thirty years, while the rate of interest, in spite of various important tuations, has on the whole tended to diminish. As we know from the preceding section, the Swedish statistics do not w the distribution of depositors according to trade or profession, ough it is impossible to give exact figures, yet from a knowledge of the anisation and topographical distribution of savings banks in Sweden.

'n . .

12y be affrmed that a considerable part of the savings belong to the rural gulation. In fact of 436 banks existing in 1910 about 326 were in the ntry, and of those in cities many had founded branches for the agriculil population. These savings banks have serious competitors in cities he ordinary banking establishments but, owing to the great difference he rate of interest paid by private savings banks and that paid by postal banks, there is no competition between them. The statistics show the amount of the sums entered in the books : it pprox n from them that 75.4 % of the books contained, in 1910, savings not eding 500 crowns and 73.2 % of the total deposits was shown in books

thich the amounts exceeded 2,000 crowns. If we inquire how the ordinary savings banks employ the funds at their osal, including initial capital, reserves and all other sums in their ds, we shall find that, having full liberty ensured to them by law, they a made very profitable investments. They generally prefer mortgages, fly on rural property.

The following table shows that in 1910 the savings banks invested of their funds in mortgages:

78

272,761.37 x3.0I

1,000,542.75 47.72

779,317.78 37.26 6,323,762.90 42.58 13,993,632.01 43.18

40,867.50 x.95 609,792.03 4.11

3,300.00 O.r6 154,344.27 I.04 202,326.10 0.62

İ

Under 50,000 cor.

\$0,000 --- 000,00 100,000 250,000 250,000- 500,000 500,000-1,000,000

6,037,440.97 40.66 13,710,352.11 42.30

893,950.34 2.76

1,723,849,32 II.6I 3,610,443.14 II.14 6,453,417.43 II.a3

49,346,893,22 IS.42 58,793,546.33 12.99

55,559.35 18.8x * Cash, etc. Crowns 126,370.33 42.77 % Guaranteed by Bills of Exchange TABLE III. — Investment of Capital by Ordinary Savings Banks. Crowns Loans to Private Persons 108,611.11 36.76 % On Mortgages Crowns 99.1 00'006'4 Louns to Communes etc. 36

on Bonds

Bonds and Similar Personal Securities Crowns

%

Crowns

Bach Savings Bank Capital Deposited

85,777,890.80 9.75 35,483,843.63 4.04 493,493,034.13 56.17 144,484,414.21 16.43 120,256,270.16 123.67 68,168,173.84 21.31 36,263,178.89 8.02 19,178,355.32 33.37 29,596,709.51 51.49 15,598,232.76 4.88 171,365,376.38 53.57 16,576,191.63 3.66 271,325,623.94 59.97 3.05 37 3.06 15,431,239.63 4.82 69,497,730.55 15.36 488,950.25 0.85

Total . . .

1,000,000-5,000,000 B Above 5,000,000

We are sorry we cannot give figures to show how much money is insted in mortgages on rural and urban estate respectively. But, considerable that a large percentage of mortgages to private individuals is a ranteed on rural estate.

The preceding table shows that, the greater the capital of the savings nks, the larger is the proportion of funds invested in mortgages. This easy to understand, since it is only when there are considerable funds to administered that it becomes easy to organise a system of mortgage set satisfy the requirements of the bank by supplying funds for exceptional with a rawals, and also serve the interests of agriculture. We are sorry of to possess, as in the case of other countries, facts to show the proofion of mortgages redeemable in instalments to the total number for pery group of savings banks.

Loans on mortgages to private persons have become more important uring the last thirty years; they represented 42.70 % of the total amount funds administered in 1886, increasing to 51.54 % in 1890, to 51.37 % in 1910.

But loans granted on personal guarantee have decreased in importance; ey represented 30.76 % of the total in 1880, 24.64 % in 1890, 108 % in 1900, and 16.43 % in 1910. In thirty years this form of loan is diminished by one half. As regards loans to private individuals on risonal guarantee it will be observed that the savings banks destine greater or smaller proportion of their funds to transactions of this kind, ording to the amount of the capital they have to invest. The smaller vings banks, situated in small centres where the solvency of borrowers can more easily ascertained, grant a larger proportion of loans on bills of change than the larger banks. In fact, the banks with funds not exceeding 1000 crowns invested in such loans 42.77 % of their funds in 1010, while use the capital of which was from 1,000,000 to 5,000,000 crs. invested in is way only 21.31 %; and banks with still larger capital only 8.02 %.

From what has been already said, it will appear that private savings aks invest the greater part of the funds at their disposal in loans to prive individuals either on the security of mortgages or of bills of exchange. In lighest percentage of such investments (85.48 %) is made by those wings banks which have deposits exceeding 250,000 crowns, but not above flamillion. The smaller banks usually engage in personal credit business, d those with deposits exceeding 5,000,000 crs. almost exclusively in ortgage credit business to the very considerable sum for Sweden of 1,325,623, crowns.

§ 3 POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.

In 1884 postal savings banks were founded to receive the savings the poorer classes, more especially in those thinly populated parts of

Sweden where ordinary savings banks either were non-existent or v_0 few in number (1).

They have entirely fulfilled their purpose. The ordinary saving banks in Sweden work successfully and have become institutions of public utility working without any idea of profit, so, in order to protect them from the competition of the postal banks, the deposits bearing interest in the latter were limited to 2,000 crowns and the rate of interest restricted to 3.60%, that is about one crown per cent less than the rate of the ordinary banks.

The postal banks receive, in proportion to the number of inhabitant a larger amount of savings in the less populous provinces where the ordinar savings banks are less active, and a less amount in the densely populate provinces where there are thriving private savings banks. In the last report of the postal banks we find that in 1911, exclusive of the city of Stockholm the provinces of Norbotten (which according to the census of December 3th 1911 had 1.5 inhabitants per square kilometre), Skaraborg (30 per sq. km. and Kopparberg (6 per sq. km.) showed the highest figures for deposit (respectively 2,758, 2,774, and 2,739 crowns per 1,000 inhabitants), while in the provinces of Malmöhus (91 inhabitants per sq. km.) where the ordinary savings banks are more numerous and active, and Kristiansta (35 inhabitants per sq. km.) the average amounts of savings per 1,000 inhabitants were only 752 and 632 crowns respectively

To throw further light on the character of the postal banks, it may be observed that in Sweden more than in many other countries, the work is subsidiary to that of the ordinary savings banks. They reaches their highest development twenty years after their institution, receiving 1904 deposits to the amount of 54,899,275 crowns in 571,824 bank bood (against 600,000 crowns in 1,300,000 books of the ordinary savings bank and declined in importance up to 1010, while the ordinary savings bank continued to increase in number, as shown by the following table.

Table IV. — Number of Books and Amount of Deposits in the Postal Banks from 1884 to 1911.

	Number	Number	Amount	Amount of Deposits			
Year	of Books	of Books per 1,000 Inhabitants	of Deposits (in crowns)	per Book	per 1,000 Inhabitan		
1884	79,513	17	827,641	10.41	178.		
1885-89	155,355	32	3,918,681	23.22	825		
1890-94	300,346	61	20,417,231	66.49	4,222		
1895-99	489,478	97	54,057,308	109.78	10,769		
1900-04	571,824	109	54,899,275	96.02	10,561		
1905-09	563,782	104	50,252,543	89.08	9,340.		
1910	557,337	101	46,253,411	82.99	8,376.		
1911	565,759	102	47,186,406	83.40	8,484		

From 1903, when the State under took the insurance of life annuities, the postal back have been required to collect the penniums and pay the annuities.

The decline apparent from these figures is also shown in the excess withdrawals over deposits since the year 1900.

years -		Excess of Withdrawals over Deposits
		crowns %
1900		5,442,345 140.00
1905		- ^
1910		681,042 105.20
1911	• • • • • • • • • • • •	631,060 104.90

This diminution of deposits in the postal banks is the more remarke because the number of post-offices authorised to act as savings its has been increasing during the last few years; from 1,575 in 1884 2.652 in 1900, 3,245 in 1910 and 3,286 in 1911. These figures show the postal banks which corresponded to 88 % of the post-offices existing 1884, corresponded in 1911 to 99.27 %. And, as the deposits have inished not only in absolute value, but also in proportion to the rage amount entered in each book, we may conclude that the postal ings banks in Sweden, while their funds have decreased, have still a at economic and social mission. They leave to private savings banks the tom of those who can accumulate larger savings, and who seek for quate interest, and devote themselves to the service of the poor who fer for their small savings the greater convenience and security offered the postal banks to the higher rates offered by the private savings banks. ere the latter exist, the postal banks, all organised on principles of licutility, confine their labours to poor and thinly populated districts, re they alone can aid the humblest classes of society in their efforts to e money.

It must also be pointed out that, in consequence of this, the cost of admination has increased and rose in 1911 to 296,845 crowns, and the average of every transaction is 35 öre, a figure which, however, cannot be consided high when compared with the expenses of postal banks in other must be a supersection of the constant of the con

The rules governing the Swedish postal banks must now be considered. Of these one of the most important as confirming the social character of the savings banks and depriving them of any possibility of making tonis, is that, as in similar institutions in nearly all other countries, he profits on their investments, after deduction of the interest to deposite and the cost of administration, must be exclusively appropriated to he use of the bank itself, and especially to its efforts to encourage sav-

gamong the poorer classes.

The deposits may be made in coin, in coupons of government bonds or special stamps

⁽t) See Bulletin of Economic and Social Institutions, no. 8. Aug. 1913. p. 105.

The minimum is one crown, the maximum on which interest will paid is, as has been said, 2,000 crowns. Deposits in excess of this sum be no interest.

Withdrawals may be made in every postal bank, after a special requestion has been addressed to the central office. There is no "saving clause", as French savings banks, but the central office may fix a period for withdrawals which may extend to one month for amounts exceeding 500 fram Withdrawals at sight may be made only in the offices in Stockholm

Minors of 15 years of age and married women may make deposited and withdraw without authorization from their parents or husband. The deposits and interest are guaranteed by the State. No person makes the possess more than one book.

In communes where there are no post-offices, the rural postmen m collect deposits and make payments. In 1910 the postmen so acting number 348. There were 1,393 schoolmasters and mistresses receiving the savin of their pupils in 1910.

In order to interest the officials in the extension of savings banks, the receive a commission of 5 ore for each book, and 5 ore more if the account not closed within the year; 2 ore for each deposit, and 0.1 per cent on total amounts, and 0.1% on the amounts sent to the savings banks, if account is sent in every ten days to the head office.

The rules as to the investment of savings bank funds are of special interest. The capital not required for current expenses is deposited in State Bank. The funds not needed for withdrawals are invested in Smish Government stock or in bonds of the General Mortgage Bank of Swedin both cases under State guarantee; or in bonds issued by communes with authority from the Government or by associations or institutes high guaranteed by a commune duly authorised for the purpose by the Government, both as regards the reimbursement of the capital or payment interest.

Should any capital remain uninvested, it may be granted as a loan communes or private individuals on special security, or deposited in bar of which the rules have been authorised by Royal Decree, and which has capital and reserves amounting to at least 5,000,000 crowns.

We shall now see how the capital of the Swedish postal banks was vested on December 31st., 1911.

It amounted to 50,550,908.51 crowns and was thus distributed:

	crowns	% of the Total
Cash Balance, Credit, Advances etc	306,104.89	0.61
Bonds and Interest	36,078,097.02	71.37
Communal Loans and Interest	10,304,435.08	20.38
Mortgage Loans and Credit in Banks	3,862,271.52	7.64

Total . . . 50,550,908.51 100.00

Of 36,000,000 crs. invested in bonds, 20,386,290.63 crowns (43.02 % the assets of the postal banks) were represented by mortgage bonds the General Mortgage Bank of Sweden, the rest by communal and railway onds. Five mortgage loans were made for the sum of 1,245,000 crowns, that nearly half the capital invested by the banks was directly or indirectly apart to satisfy, through the Mortgage Bank, the requirements of alestate, in great part, it may be said, of rural real estate (1).

§ 4. PEOPLE'S BANKS.

Less important as receivers of the people's savings than the ordinary d postal savings banks are the People's Banks (Solidaroska Folkbanker).

In consequence of the new law of 1903, which gives the name of bank solely to those institutions the regulations of which have been approved by Royal Decree, the people's banks, have been obliged to change their denomination for those of Credit Associations, People's Institutes, Savings Institutes etc.

Unlike the ordinary savings banks, these people's banks are not institutions of public utility, nor do they limit themselves to receiving savings; they receive deposits at long maturity and open current accounts with issue of cheques. There are 17 institutions which discount bills of exchange.

Their regulations, like those of the savings banks much be accounted.

Their regulations, like those of the savings banks, must be approved by the provincial administrations.

At the end of 1910, there were 23 people's banks, of which two were urban and 21 rural; there were 18,394 depositors, whose savings amounted to 7528,000 crowns. The minimum for deposits is fixed by the bank at from 25 ore to one crown. and in general there is no fixed maximum for the amount intered in each book.

The average rate of interest for 1910 was 4.428 %, lower therefore than hat paid by the ordinary savings banks, and higher than that paid by ustal banks.

The average credit in 1910 for each book, 409.28 crowns, is lower than he average amount deposited in the ordinary savings bank books, and igher than that in the postal bank books.

The savings deposited in the people's banks form 63.4 of their capital. The nature of the transactions of these banks has an influence on the liferent investments, as shown in the following table.

⁽¹⁾ See in the Bulletin of Economic and Social Institutions. no. 11. November, 1913, an artic by H. J. DANNEELT, on Agricultural Credit in Sweden. § 2: The General Mortgage Bank, § Organisation and Work.

TABLE V. - Nature of Investments of People's Banks in 1919.

Nature of Investments Crowns
Cash
Credit in other Banks
Real Estate and Stock
Bonds
Shares and Personal Estate 2,891.86
Bills discounted (in 17 Institutions)
Loans on Mortgage of Real Estate 3,509,555.12
» on other Mortgages
on Personal Security 3,890,569.48
Credits
interest Due
Total 13,012,991.93

In the case of the people's banks also, we have been unable to ascertain how much capital has been lent in mortgages on rural property. We only know that nearly 27 per cent of the available funds were invested in mortgages on real estate.

Unlike the savings banks, the people's banks have invested 25.23 % a their capital in discounting bills, and only 0.27 % in communal loans and in purchasing bonds, shares and other securities.

2. THE MORTGAGE QUESTION IN SWEDEN.

SOURCES:

INFORT ENVOYÉ A L'INSTITUT INTERNATIONAL D'AGRICULTURE (Report sent to the International Institute of Agriculture) by H. JUHLIN DANNFELT, Secretary to the Royal Academy of Agriculture in Stockholm; Official Correspondent of the International Institute of Agriculture.

MISTISK TINSERIFT UTGIEVEN AF KUNGL. STATISTISKA CENTRALBYRÄN (Review of Statistics, willished by the Royal Office of Statistics) 1913. no. 1. Stockholm.

In an article published in our Bulletin (1), Mr. H. Juhlin Dannfelt has hown how land registers and books are classified in Sweden, where there is a true cadastre for real estate.

It seems to us that it would be interesting to complete the information wen in the abovementioned article, in connection with the question hand credit, by the addition of some notes on mortgage statistics in weden, and on the subject of mortgage debts in that country during the st few years.

Mortgages on real estate to be legally valid must be entered in the land gisler (fastighetsböcher) kept by the legal authorities. In these books rentered the changes in landed property through alienation, free or condimal transfer, registration or cancellation of real charges. Every year the idgs must present to the Department of Justice a report of the mortges which have been entered, renewed or terminated in the past twelve boths.

No true census of the mortgage debt has ever been made and therefore is impossible to ascertain precisely the amount of the mortgages on landed tracerty.

Nevertheless, by means of the data contained in the annual reports prented to the Department of Justice, the whole amount of the mortgage by may be calculated.

But, as has been observed in the case of other countries, the figures has obtained cannot be regarded as abosolutely correct, representing as key do, for various reasons, an amount greater than the true debt. Many hortgages are registered not as security for a loan, but for other real charges, to often happens that mortgages already terminated remain purposely meancelled. In the case of mortgages redeemable by instalments no actually the states of repayments till all the debt is paid. Finally, as regards he whole debt on property, the statistics are incomplete, because the loans hade on the security of funds belonging to the State are not included in the amounts entered in the land books of the courts.

⁽¹⁾ Bulletin of Economic and Social Institutions. November 1913. Agricultural Credit in 186en. § 5. Real Estate Rights, Land Books and Lami Registers, pp. 85-87.

A summary of the reports presented by each court to the Departme of Justice is published by the Government in the Review of Statistics (St tistisk Tidskrift).

The following table, giving the latest data published, shows the del on rural and urban land. But it must be remembered that the figures; only approximately correct, because among rural mortgages are count those upon buildings used for other than agricultural purposes, such as f tories etc. in the country. The amount of these mortgages can only conjectured and there are no statistics of the value of the individual me gages.

TABLE I. - Mortgage Debts on Rural and Urban Real Estate.

			Debts o	o Rural Real E	state	Debts of	n Urban Real I	State	
Year Entered			Entered	Renewed	Expired	Rutered	Renewed	Expire	
	-	-	ctowns	crowns	crowns	crowns	Crowns	CTOW	
1901			84,264,006	91,937.481	18,207,518	70,205,914	68,957,696	10,41	
1002			96,313,767	88,572,590	25,348,024	87,859,407	76,210.768	12,28	
1903			123,354,800	98,993,543	33,669,414	112,139,995	75,031,282	15,64	
1904			106,064,229	1	37,541,843	129,273,081	79,710,191	13,41	
1905			117,947,242	114,100,613	26,638,329	130,352,322	88,681,073	14,54	
1906			135,732,554	1	31,586,637	177,992,649	96,375,533	19,33	
1907				131,627,523	39,584,603	183,225,178	118,719,884	23,02	
1908				113,610,534		140,893,452			
1909				138.936,867	35.322,182	105,971,682	116,055,839	21,25	
1910				126,712,515	52,438,048	128,061,749	123,224,333	31,91	

TABLE II. - Mortgage Debts at the End of each Year.

Year	On Rurai Real Estate	On Urban Real Estate	In the Who Kingdom
	crowns	crowns	crowns
1901	1,235,488,249	1,014,001,526	2,249,489
1902	1,288,654,659	1,082,250,256	2,370,904
-	1,364,661,194	1,166,184,761	2,530,845
1903	1,410,504,010	1,271,824,717	2,682,328
1904	1,477,722,032	1,379,709,694	2,857,431
1905	1,566,751,138	1,525,893,312	3,082,644
- 1	1,657,515,470	1,666,945,724	3,324,461
1907	1,789,677,074	1,764,038,358	3,553,715
1908	1,906,292,489	1,834,554,576	3,740,847
1909	2,002,260,391	1,925,176,101	3,927,436

These figures show that the mortgage debt in the ten years considered sontinued to increase so quickly, that from 2,449,000,000 crs. in 1901 rose to 3,927,000,000 crs. in 1910. To this increase rural property has ntributed less than urban, as may be easily perceived by observing that tween 1901 and 1910 the difference between rural and urban indebteds almost disappeared. This is owing to the vigorous development of nunfactures in Sweden during the last few years, causing a growing of credit.

Of all the institutions engaging in land credit business, only the ovincial mortgage associations give data which leave no doubt as to ir interpretation. In fact as these associations act as intermedistor credit to agriculture the sums they lend represent only debts on all land.

Other institutions, such as private banks and savings banks, public and vate, publish only the total amount of their credit, without distinguishthe nature of the real estate which is the security.

Insurance companies do not engage in rural credit business.

If we consider the loans granted by various mortgage associations ween 1900 and 1911, we shall find that their increase has not followed: some ascending line as the mortgages on rural land. From 270,172,467 was in 1900, these loans rose to 291,204,605 crowns in 1911.

Hence it may be deduced that to the increase of rural mortgage crediting the last few years, private capitalitsts, savings banks, banks properly called and other institutions collecting savings, have contributed in ever reasing proportion.

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CHILE

THE LAND QUESTION AND COLONISATION IN CHILE.

(Continued).

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§ 6. TRADE IN AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

I. Some General Remarks on Chilian Commerce. — The geographical deconomic conditions of the country, the distribution of its productive ious and the nature of its products (see § 1-5) are such that the commerce Chile, both home and foreign, is of an active character. On the one hand, have mining industry, and sheep improvement, furnishing products clusively for exportation; on the other, agricultural products destined ielly for national consumption and giving occasion for fairly extensive

⁽i) See the sources given in the first part of this article published in the [preceding aber of this Bulletin

internal commerce. In the following table we show the state of the i_{01e} trade in 1911 and 1912:

Foreign Comme	rce.	:							in millions of	gold pesos
Exports Imports		•	•	•	•			•	331	377 334

In 1912 the mineral products exported contributed about 336,000,0 pesos to the amount, and agricultural products only 40,600,000 gold per In 1912, the import amounted, as we see, to 334,000,000 gold per 1912, the import amounted as we see, to 334,000,000 gold per 1912, the import amounted as we see, to 334,000,000 gold per 1912, the import amounted as we see, to 334,000,000 gold per 1912, the import amounted about 336,000,000 gold per 1912, the import amounted about 336,000 gold per 1912, the import amou

pesos, and consisted chiefly of manufactured articles; cotton and wool fabrics, machinery, industrial oils and paper being the most important Chile imports, as we have already shown, (§ 5) a considerable quantity of live (horned) cattle from the Argentine Republic (in 1912, 10,700,000 gold pesos), besides raw sugar from Peru (in 1912, 6,100,000 gold pesos)

Foreign trade is carried on entirely by sea, except that with the A gentine Republic and Bolivia (1) amounting in 1912 to 18,200,000 gold p sos (7,400,000 in the case of exports, 11,200,000 in that of imports), at 500,000 gold pesos, respectively.

The following table shows the development of the maritime $\operatorname{trade}_{w_i}$ foreign countries:

			1910	1911		
Shippin	g	Number of Vessels	Tons	Number of Vessels	Tous	
Entering Chilian port	Steamers Sailing Vessels	3,284 478	9,205,218 905,217	3,626 489	10,449,3 859,9	
	Total	3,762	10,110,435	4,115	11,309,29	
Leaving ports	Steamers Sailing Vessels	·2,653 438	7,442,069 782,309	3,021 39 7	8,593, 0 0 710,85	
	Total	3,091	8,224,378	3,418	9,303,91	

From these figures we may easily understand the vast importance the shipping interest in the entire economic life of the country. The who national production is directly concerned in it; fluctuations in prices freight appreciably influence the returns for production, trade and transpo Agriculture is the most sensitive to the rise or fall in freight rates can sometimes by fluctuations in exchange and the amount of cargo offers

⁽¹⁾ An excellent line of communication by land with the Argentine Republic is off by the Trans-Andean railway. In this way, the distance between Buenos Aires and V paraiso may be accomplished in less than two days, but the tariff for goods is very him.

or artificially, through shipping rings. The Chilian mercantile marine is composed of only 162 vessels with a total of 95,000 tons and only engaged in the coasting trade; oversea commerce is all in the hands of foreigners. Now whilst many of the extractive industries are worked by foreign capital and their interests are bound up with navigation, agriculture is, on the ings are often injurious to agriculture, one reason being that agricultural moducts must be exported at the right time. (1)

This state of things explains how Chilian public opinion ardently lesires the formation of a strong national mercantile marine.

2. — Foreign trade in agricultural products. — As we have seen, the xport trade in this branch in 1912, amounted only to 10.8 % of the otal exportation thus distributed in 1911 and 1912:

Exportation of Agricultural Products.

							Pr	od	uct	5		_										1911	1912
·1																						in thousands o	of gold pesos
nimal .	•	• •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	٠	•	•	•	•	•	٠	٠.	21,010	20,769
egetable			•	•	٠	٠	٠	٠	•	•		•			•		٠	•	•	•	•	14,470	19,835
						_				_						T	ot:	al				35,480	40,604

The most important articles are:

Table Total Table Tabl		1911	1912
Leather 5,901 8,36 Frozen Meat 1,921 2,94 Shoe Soles 2,678 2,035 Preserved Meat 454 1,21 Honey 476 33 chable Products: 2,36 Corn 1,384 7,12 Oats 1,589 2,36 Beans 1,833 1,633 Nuts 1,888 1,24	imal Products:	in thousands o	f gold pesos
Frozen Meat 1,921 2,94 Shoe Soles 2,678 2,035 Preserved Meat 454 1,21 Honey 476 33 stable Products: 200 1,384 7,12 Oats 1,589 2,36 Beans 1,833 1,560 Nuts 1,888 1,24		6,901	8, 36 7
Shoc Soles 2,078 2,03 2,03 1,76 Preserved Meat 454 1,21 Honey 476 33 Itable Products : Corn 1,384 7,12 Oats 1,589 2,36 Beans 1,833 1,60 Nuts 1,888 1,24		· 1,921	2,949
Preserved Meat 2,035 1,76 Honey 454 1,21 476 33 stable Products: 2,36 Corn 1,384 7,12 Oats 1,589 2,36 Beans 1,833 1,60 Nuts 1,888 1,24		. 2,678	2,032
Honey		2,035	1,762
476 33		454	1,217
Corn 1,384 7,12 Oats 1,589 2,36 Beans 1,833 1,83 Nuts 1,888 1,24	tioney	. 476	337
Dats 1,304 7,12 Beans 1,589 2,36 Nuts 1,833 1,60 Nuts 1,888 1,24	table Products:		
Uats 1,589 2,36 Beans 1,833 1,60 Nuts 1,848 1,24	Corn	1 284	
Beans 1,309 2,300 Nuts 1,833 1,600	Oats		
Nuts		1	
		1,858	1,248

⁽¹⁾ In Chile there are no large grain elevators.

The countries to which the greater part of the exports, both agricultural and mineral, are sent, are, in order of importance, Great Britain Germany, and the United States. These three, in the same order of importance, are the chief countries exporting to Chile.

3. Home Trade in Agricultural Produce. — Whilst the exportation of agricultural produce is somewhat limited, the internal trade in this line is every considerable, because many of the localities which consume most are at a long distance from the centres of production. For we know that agricultural produce for general consumption is only cultivated in the middle zone, the northern zone chiefly producing nitre and the southern being pastoral, and thus depending on the middle zone for their supplies.

A large quantity therefore of agricultural produce must be carried far, and must pass through many hands. Agriculture is then the principal factor in the home trade and in the coasting trade etc.

Traffic between the various zones of production must evidently be carried on by sea. The physical conformation of Chili admits of only a limited development of railway lines (6,117 km.), except in the middle zone, which is agricultural and populous, where railways are indispensable for the transport of goods from the interior to the cities and ports.

Chief among these ports is Valparaiso, where the greater part of the cargoes for foreign countries are collected for transport by steam-boats Other ports of importance for the coasting trade, are Punta Arenas, Iqui que, Antofagasta and Tocopilla in the north; (I) Coquimbo, Talcahuan Valdivia, in the middle zone; Puerto Montt and Ancud in the southern

In 1912, the coasting trade amounted to a total of 517,400,000 gold pesos (253,700,000 pesos for imports, and 253,700,000 pesos for exports). In these amounts animal products figure for 56,900,000 pesos, vegetable for 229,800,000 pesos, wine and other drinks for 68,500,000 pesos. These calculations show that two thirds of the coasting trade consists in transport of agricultural products, either raw or manufactured.

As to the railway transport of produce, which in 1912 amounted to 7.520,000 tons, it is impossible to say how much of this could be considered as agricultural.

Trade in agricultural produce is carried on by means of many intermediaries. It is very seldom that the producer sells directly to the consumer even when selling wholesale, for agriculturists, who are large proprietors, generally hand over their produce exclusively to one deak who undertakes to dispose of it, unless he purchases it on his or account as a speculation.

This explains how agricultural products and articles of food in particular are bought by the consumer at prices entirely out of proportion those paid by the dealer to the producer. The following table gives a idea of the enormous difference.

⁽¹⁾ These are ports for sailing vessels carrying eargoes of nitre.

Wholesale and Retail Prices of Various Vegetables on the Market of Val-

	Number per Load	Price of Load Wholesale	Wholesale Price per Piece	Retail P. ice per Plece		
liflowers	900	100.00	0.11	0.75		
200lii iil	700 to 1,900	70.00	0.10	0.75		
nips.	1,000	30,00	0,03	0.30		
nce	3,000	120.00	0,04	0.20		
g	1,200	30,00	0.07	0.25		
rds. · · · · · · ·	150	90.00	0. 6 0	1.30		
ots	10,000	80,00	0,008	0.07		

§ 7. RURAL LAND

1. Land System. — The present land system of Chili originated at the e of the Spanish conquest. The general, Pedro Valdivia, distributed ng his companions in arms the territory conquered in the first half of XVIth century. The portion of land assigned to each was called partimiento and the native (indios) population inhabiting it was called mienda. He who had a share in the distributed lands had the right nake the people of the repartimiento work for his profit, but on his part was obliged to keep them in subjection, and have them instructed he Christian religion.

The bestowal of the land was made in a very rough and ready manner. In instance, the conqueror, said to a favourite, "All the valley through this river runs is yours". As land had no value whatever, for it not cultivated and the yield from it was very little, there was no osition made by the inhabitants. In this way, vast agricultural tes were formed, some of them extending from the Cordilleras down to sea.

This system of concessions of land continued under the viceroys. nts were made to men not only for their own lives but also to their rediate descendants, who, in their turn, obtained new concessions and the concentration of large estates in the hands of single families inued.

About the end of the XVIIth century, some of these enriched nists began to acquire titles of nobility, and entail their estates ivided on their eldest sons to whom they transmitted their titles. On the other hand, certain religious bodies, more especially the its, little by little, became very extensive proprietors through donations purchase. Later, when the Jesuits were expelled (1767), their lands

were confiscated but though they passed from the public treasury in other hands, the area of the estates remained unchanged.

When the Republic succeeded the Viceroys the State continued make grants of land, and this has also occurred in recent times. (see §

All this explains how in Chili large estates prevail, to which the St

The State still possesses very extensive tracts in the nitre zone and Magellan territory, half of which is still its property. Except for so areas situated in the southern part of the central zone (Araucania), the State lands are, however, not adapted for agriculture, but are general nitrous, and a considerable portion has been ceded to large businesses found for the extraction of nitrates, and in certain parts the State lands a suitable for sheep-rearing.

Of the State lands we are unable to give particulars, for not of is there no cadastre, but much of the land is still unexplored.

2. Distribution of Rural Land. — Notwithstanding the abolition of encomiendas and of entailed estates, large landed properties still p ponderate. It is not rare to find an estate of from five to ten thousan hectares. We are not here speaking of the grazing farms of the speaking of the speaking of the grazing farms of the speaking of the grazing farms of the speaking of the speaki

We have not statistics sufficient to give an exact idea of the distriution of rural property.

According to a valuation made some years ago by the Department of Finance, the landed property would be distributed as follows:

Value in pesos			No. of Rural Estates	Value in pesos						No. of R Estate		
	up to	2,000 p	e-os	13,089	froi	1150	0,000	to	60	0,000 1	pesos	9
from	2,00n to	3,000	10	14,049	, ,	60	0,000	n	70	0,000	21	4
4	3,000 »	4,000	н	8,305),	70	0,000	13	80	0,000)i	5
7	4,000 *	5,000	ъ	5,745	b	80	0,000	D	9 0	0,000	'n	1
9	5,000 h	10,000	3)	12,426	30	90	0,000))	r	nillion	13	3
7.	10,000 »	50,000	ъ	11,458	»	I n	nillion	'n	2	33	n	74
i)	50,000 » 1	00,000	»	1,912	1)	2	10	В	3	n	,	2
вІ	00,000 » 2	200,000	3)	1,145	»	3	в	1)	4	10	» į	
p 2	00,000 » 3	300,000		487	10	4	>>))	5	n	,	2
· 3	00,000 # 4	00,000	ю	267	ь	5	n))	6	1)	b	IC
. 4	00,000 » 5	00,000	,	151					То	tal .		69,988

Too much reliance should not be placed on the above valuation, whi is certainly only approximate, considering that it was drawn up for fis purposes some years ago, when the value of landed property was mu

wer than it is at present; yet the figures confirm what we have said as to he prevalence of large estates.

Let us observe that in the estates considered in this Table, State, unicipal and ecclesiastical lands, which do not pay taxes were not ichided. If the calculation could be made not of the value, but of he area (for which, however, we have not sufficient data), the proportion (small holdings would be still less, since the value of these per unit of area motably higher than that of the medium sized or great estates.

3. Increase in Value of Rural Land. — Rural land has gone on increasing in value according to the demands of the home markets and the one of the country.

Half a century ago, a cuadra (I) of good arable land, well watered, in evicinity of the capital, was worth at most 400 pesos, and in localies more distant from centres of population it might be bought for even pesos. Twenty-five years ago, the highest price for such a holding ould have been 1,000 pesos and the lowest 50. At present 5,000 pesos not a rare price and there is not a cuadra of arable and irrigated ground at is not worth at the least 150 pesos, even if situated in the most remote stricts. So, in the course of 50 years, we see that the value of land has sen in the proportion of I to 12. Admitting that the value of money is utilized less now than it was then, the value of arable land has trebled 50 years.

Naturally, there are great differences dependent on physical, social deconomic conditions (proximity to centres of population, means of mmunication, systems of cultivation); but that which chiefly affects the ice is whether the land be suitable for irrigation or not. Arid soil will only ow cereals and give small returns (see § 3). Yet if the arid soil is irrigatite doubles and trebles in value in a few years, as is also the case here extensive cultivation is exchanged for intensive.

Land in the northern and middle parts of the central zone is the ost valuable; then going southward we find the value gradually dimishes where certain arid tracts not yet cleared may be bought for pesos per hectare.

We give some instances which occurred in 1972. In the district of maffor about an hour by railway from the capital, a holding of 9 cuassuitable for irrigation and adapted for fruit growing, with more an 2 cuadras and a half of vineyards and a dwelling house, was sale for 70,000 pesos. In the province of Curicó, near a railway ation, an area of 1,500 cuadras adapted for the cultivation of reals, for hay making, and for the rearing and fattening of cattle, was sele at 800,000 pesos. In the province of Osorno, far to the south, a operty of 100 cuadras, suitable for irrigation and near a railway, might had for 25,000 pesos.

⁽¹⁾ A cuadra of land is about a hectare and a half (or 15,651 sq. metres),

These prices, however, are for farms more or less cultivated; l_{and}_{ud} yet cleared, such as is found in the southern region, can only comman much lower prices.

The sale of landed property is effected generally by the payment $_0$ a portion ($\frac{1}{3}$ or $\frac{1}{3}$) in cash; for the remainder, the seller takes a mortgag on the land with interest at 8%.

Purchase and sale of rural land is frequent, particularly in periods on national prosperity. But in all this, there is little part taken by the great mass of the labouring population, who generally feel no desire to rise of to attain to the position of landowners.

4. Native Landed Property. — We cannot pass over unmentioned a form of rural property which presents special characteristics; we refer to the lam held by the aboriginal Araucanians in a territory south of the rive Bio-Bio.

According to the census of 1907, there were about 100,000 descendant of the ancient Araucanians, a warlike people whom the Spaniards found difficulty in subjugating and the Chilian government only subdued after some severe fighting. Its dominion once firmly established, the State has provided for their gradual civilisation through pacific relations with the other inhabitants, cultivation of the soil and the possession of their own land.

To this end, the Government has made laws in their favour, one of which empowers a special Commission (Commission radicadora de inti genos) to grant to every father of an aboriginal family a piece of law (about 10-12 hectares), on condition that he live there at least for one year. He receives a title deed, but is forbidden to part with the land.

As these aborigines formerly possessed a great part of these lands in common (we do not speak of proprietorship, because there was no legal system) the law has established that they may be subdivided, consideration being taken, however, of the existing conditions.

This work is carried out very slowly. In fact, although the fundamental law was passed many years ago (December 4th., 1866) a great par of the aboriginal property does not legally belong to the occupiers. Much inconvenience in consequence arises, chiefly that, the ownership of the holder of a property not being recognised definitely and legally, it is not inalienable and not a few of the aborigenes have fallen victims to astute speculators.

The efforts to increase the number of small holdings by giving them to aborigines did not produce encouraging results, no doubt through the aversion of the *indios* from labour, their half wild state, their isolate life, and their resistance, often invincible, to civilisation. As already said (§ 1), the aborigines, now reduced to a small number, are destined to disappear altogether.

§ 8. LABOUR AND AGRICULTURAL CONTRACTS.

the natural consequence of such a division of landed property is that riculture must be based on paid labour or remunerated under some her form.

In § I we have seen that the working agricultural population amounts $_{220,000}$. To these we must add the labourers without fixed occupion (gamenes), about 240,000 in all. These live as day-labourers generally a the farms where they find work; so that those employed in manual ricultural labour may be computed at about 400,000.

Leaving out of consideration the small proprietors, as but a very small umber of them may be considered independent — for most are confided to hire themselves out to work for others to eke out the small returns their own ill cultivated holdings — it may be said that the rural opulation is composed almost exclusively of labourers on wages and of ontract labourers (inquilinos). In the northern part of the middle zone, hore particularly in the province of Coquimbo, where cultivation is more particularly in the province of Coquimbo, where cultivation is more thereive, there are, as well as the small independent proprietors, also research but the number of these also is limited.

Let us look more closely into the characters of these two groups of ultural labourers, those in receept of wages and those working on ract (inquilinos).

1. Day labourers. — These must be classified as Chilians and foreigners. latter are skilled agriculturists, kitchen-gardeners, cultivators of fruit, gardeners obtained by the great proprietors, especially from Europe, in, France, Switzerland). Their wages are necessarily high, excepally so.

The native agricultural labourer is occupied in intensive cultivation let the guidance of an experienced agriculturist, generally a foreigner, in the ordinary work of the fields, especially at harvest time. His ges are low and are paid partly in money, partly in kind. Taken gether, their amount does not exceed a maximum of 2 pesos when rd is not included, but it varies from district to district, and often from m to farm.

The highest wages are paid in the provinces of Santiago and Talca.

The wages of agricultural labourers, though they have been gradually ing during the last ten years are, as we see, lower than in other countries. is is owing to historical reasons and also to the generally low rate at ich labour is paid. When the Spaniards conquered the country, they mpelled the native population to work for them without any payment latever, but their food.

In consequence, even after the abolition of the encomiendas, wages mained low, for the manners and customs of the inhabitants had adergone but little change. The Chilian labourer of today is satisfied ith a low standard of living, and feels no stimulus to attain socila

elevation; his progress is therefore very slow. Though the quality of his work leaves much to be desired, he is vigorous, strong to resign fatigue and is attached to his employer.

2. The inquilinos. — The greater part of the rural population is composed of inquilinos, a class of contract labourers living permanently on the land. An inquilino unites the character of metayer and day labourer, and the class is found on almost every farm.

The common type of a Chilian farm (medium or large) is as follows: in the centre of the holding is the dwelling-house of the proprietor with various offices, sheds for machines, stores etc. On the larger farms the owner's house is often furnished with great luxury and every possible convenience, and here the owner generally spends the summer months, and returns to the capital or other large city for the winter.

Scattered over the farm are dwellings in which the *inquilinos* who have to do the farm work live with their families, generally miserable wooden or mud cabins of one or two rooms. However, of their own accord, proprietors are beginning to improve these habitations.

The inquilino is obliged to live permanently on the land and perform all needful work in accordance with the orders of the master or of his representative. In exchange he receives lodging, food, payment in money and plots of land which he may cultivate for his own benefit in his spare time, or which may be cultivated by his children or by out siders.

The contract between him and his master is called an *inquilinal* It is a verbal agreement, and varies according to custom, in different localities and even on different farms. The system is patriachal, continuing from generation to generation.

This contract is in use where extensive cultivation prevails. Vineyards fruit farms etc. are thus cultivated. We shall now give an idea of this sort of contract. On a farm of 7,000 hectares, there are 200 families of inquilinos, with about 1,000 members. (1) The inquilino, head of a family, is obliged to make the following engagements:

- (a) that he and his family will live and work on the farm.
- (b) that he will provide that there shall always be an adult labourer (contract labourer) to work for the proprietor at a wage of 60 centures per day.
- (c) he himself or one of his family will always be with his own horse at the disposal of the master or his representative for whatever service may be required.

The proprietor on his part provides:

- (a) a dwelling house;
- (b) wages of 60 centavos per day for the contract labour and wage of 1.20 pesos per day to other labourers (voluntarios) who live with the

⁽¹⁾With regard to the expression contract labourer, it is used in opposition to that of the free labourer", applied to one who is not obliged to live on the land.

ulino and work for the proprietor. These voluntarios may be members the inquilino's family or strangers.

(c) the food of those who work for the owner of the farm, consisting admary bread made of flour of I lb. weight and Ilb. of beans cooked hat.

(d) a hectare and half of land suitable for irrigation near the dwell-which the *inquilino* may utilise for his own benefit.

(e) a hectare of land also su table for irrigation, in a more distant to the farm, for the exclusive use of the inquilino:

(f) two or three hectares of land not suitable for irrigation, for the ivation of cereals, also for the exclusive benefit of the inquilino;

(g) grazing ground sufficient for 10 or 12 head of cattle, also on fam.

The terms of this contract, verbal and varying more or less with l custom, which is the common form throughout the agricultural on, call for some comment.

Especially is there a contradiction between the *inquilino* pledging self or one of his family to work on his master's farm, and the large session of ground he is able to work for his own advantage. On this it, let us remember that this is no strict contract, for the master, on part, cannot be very exacting in view of the scarcity of agricultural is, and so permits the *inquilino* and his family to work on their own out. In practice, also, it frequently happens that the *inquilino* cultes but a small part of the land granted to him; he has no desire to and is satisfied with what he gains by his daily labour.

As to the free labourers, they may be, as already said, members or reus of the family of the *inquilino* of strangers, who agree to live with
and work for him or for his master. When the free labourers work for
inquilino they do not, of course, receive payment or food from the master,
from the *inquilino* himself.

The contract does not hinder the *inquilino* from reaping considerable utages on his own account, if he is capable, and has a numerous ly. But, generally, as he has few wants, he is content with a miserable und is without enterprise; so he prefers to inhabit a wretched abode at than repair it or build a better.

In the farm population there is a kind of hierarchy. At the head is andlord's agent, who selects from among the better inquilinos mayors or foremen, whose duty it is to transmit orders to those below them.

§ 9. COLONISATION.

From what has been already said, it is clear that the Chilian agriculquestion is closely connected with colonisation. Let us see what has done in this important matter.

I. General View. — Agricultural colonisation was one of the first tasks hathe Chilian government proposed to undertake as soon as it was

emancipated from the Spanish domination. As early as 1817, the Supre Director of the first free government, Don Bernardo O' Higgins, enougaged immigration from Ireland and Switzerland. In 1845, the first colo isation law was promulgated; in 1848 an immigration agent was sent Germany, and towards the middle of 1850 the first German colong began to arrive. In the province of Valdivia where these colonists settle there was, so to speak, nothing but the soil; ten years later consideral progress was perceptible; agriculture and livestock improvement we prospering; there were farms and a beginning had been made in the exchange of produce with other countries and the establishment of certa factories. Valdivia is at the present time one of the most industrious a prosperous (1) of the provinces, and the descendants of the old colonis live in comfort. Valdivia, La Unión, Osorno, Puerto Montt are the mo important centres.

Other immigrants arrived later, French, Swiss, Germans at Basques; by means of whom the government has established varing colonies, the chief of which are Vittoria, Temuco and Imperial.

A new impulse was given to colonisation when the more fertile ten tories inhabited by natives (provinces of Malleco and Cantin) whose more of life is truly primitive, were conceded for private enterprise. At present these two provinces are among the most progressive as regards agriculture, cattle-rearing and wood manufactures.

More recently, contemporaneo sly with the foundation of colonic on official initiative, others have been established by private enterprise, which the chief and the most prosperous is that of "Nueva Italia founded by Italians.

In order to attract again to their own country those Chilian subjet who at various times had emigrated across the Argentine frontier, it Government decided (1896) to found national colonies, offering gran of land to Chilians. Thus, in a short time, arose those centres in which according to Perez-Canto, there are now 1,000 persons, each possessing 100,000 acres of land.

According to recent publications, the colonising work the State is undertaken has been as follows: in the provinces of Malleco, Valdivi Llanquihue and Chiloć and in the territory of Magellan 437,045 hectan have been set apart for colonisation; besides this, in the last the provinces 2,740,493 hectares were sold for the same purpose and 20,234,04 hectares were granted to private enterprise for pasture lands. In the colonised districts there are 37 colonial centres, national and foreign.

- 2. Systems of Colonisation. () If these there are two kinds: (a) national that is of Chilian subjects; (b) foreign.
- (a) National Colonisation. This is regulated by the laws of Septemb 14th., 1896 and January 18th., 1898. By these the Government permitted to grant to families of Chilian citizens land to the external colors.

⁽¹⁾ This province is specially noted for agriculture, tanning and preparing skins, a manufacture of shoe soles, honey, beer etc.

om 50 to 80 hectares, according to the province, to every father of a with 20 hectares in addition for every son above the age of twelve. grantee must (a) be a Chilian citizen, (b) be the father of a family, (c) thave been convicted of crime, or misdemeanour and (d) be able to and write. He is bound to observe the following conditions;

- (1) to respect the laws of the colony:
- (2) within two years to enclose the land assigned to him:
- (3) to cultivate personally at least half the land granted: (4) to keep in good condition at his own expense the roads crossing
- land, and the half of those bounding it; (4) to give up at any time, without compensation, ground rered for railways, public roads or bye ways to be constructed by decree of
- authorities; (6) not to part with his land nor to make any contract coning it till he has a title to it as absolute possessor. This title may be obtained by the colonist who is proved to have d six years on the land, and to have fulfilled all the conditions, otherwise

loses the grant, nor can he claim compensation for improvements. (b) Foreign Colonisation. - This is the more energetic and success-

The first legislation on the subject was a Senatus-Consultum of April h.. 1824, offering facilities and land to every foreigner who should re to Chile to found establishments for the manufacture of hemp, or copper or other raw material of the country. Then came the laws of November 18th., 1845 of January 9th., 1851,

August 4th., 1874, January 13th., 1898 and September 1st., 1800. We must distinguish between the relations existing between the public ninistration and voluntary immigrants and those between immigrants

i colonisation agencies, that is direct colonisation and colonisation by I. Direct Colonisation. — Between the government and the immigrant ficulturist who desires a grant of land a contract is made on the follow-

conditions:

The colonist obtains: (a) that he himself, his family and his luggage all be conveyed free of charge from the port where he lands to the colony,

130 contavos per day for every adult, and 15 centavos for every son or nghter of his above the age of ten, from the day of his disembarking the enters into possession of his land, (c) a grant of 70 hectares, with 30 addition for every son above the age of twelve; an allowance of 20 pe-

s per month for the first year, and a machine for uprooting tree trunks. He pledges his word of honour and obliges himself on security of ie goods he brings with him and will be granted:

(a) to establish himself with his family on the land assigned id to cultivate it for at least six years, during which time he will not ave the colony without permission from the competent authorities;

(b) to restore everything advanced to him in money or implements within five years, paying one fifth of the whole sum each year he ginning from the fourth year of residence;

(c) not to part with implements or utensils which he has receive without replacing them, with the consent of the manager of the column

(d) not to sell or pledge under any form of contract the land or trusted to him, before having obtained full possession from the government

(e) to respect the rules of the colony and the regulations laid down by the government.

The government gives a title of absolute ownership to a colonist whose conduct the manager of the colony gives a favourable report.

As security for the annual payments to be made by the colonist who he

received full ownership, his land is mortgaged till the debt has been full paid. Should he not observe the conditions, the contract is broken and the government is freed from all responsibility. Should this occur before the annual payments are made, the colonist must pay all that is due in colonist must pa

If before sailing for Chile the colonist or his wife should have bee suffering from any serious or contagious malady, they will be rejected an the contract becomes void.

For the present no grants will be made either to Chilians ort foreigners until the situation of certain colonists who have had concession and have not yet received their portion of land has been regulated.

2. Colonisation by means of agencies. — This is the system general adopted of late. The contract between the Government and the agencie is not cleatly defined by law. It is merely stated (art. II of the law of August 4th., 1874) that "to private individuals desiring to found colonis on their own account on native territory there will be granted 150 hectars of land in a level or undulating locality, or twice as much of mountail land, for every immigrant family from Europe or the United States, as cording to conditions to be fixed from time to time in the respective contracts by the President of the Republic."

Concessions of this kind are founded on special contracts made according to circumstances between the agency and the Government.

The Government must grant the land, the agency must bring to Clif a certain number of families within a given period.

We give here an outline of one of these contracts in order to show the relation between the Government, the agency and the colonist. All these contracts are expressed in somewhat similar terms.

For instance, in 1903 Mr. X. Y. obtained a concession of Government land, and agreed to settle on it about 30 agricultural families within two years from the date of the contract. Mr X. Y. had to form an agency to carry out the contract under the supervision of the Inspector General of Land and Colonisation in Chile.

To Mr. X. Y., for every father of a family introduced by him, the Government granted 150 hectares and for every boy above two years of age 75 hectares, as well as the ground necessary to construct a village

who). The colonists had to satisfy the same conditions as to morality, and trade as those required from colonists engaged directly in Europe. Mr. X. Y. had to pay the expense of the journey of the colonists are partially advances for the installation of the colonists on the same scale as see made by the Government in direct colonisation. He had to guate that the colonists introduced by him would remain at least a year half permit, Mr. X. Y. with the concurrence of the Chilian government in to establish a school and the needful sanitary service.

If Mr. X. V. did not fulfil his obligations, he was to forfeit the sum of oop pesos given by him as security and the State would resume possessof the land, respecting, however, the rights of the colonists already roduced.

These are the essential features of the contract between the Governnt and the colonisation agencies.

The agency in its turn makes a contract with each colonist accordto a given form, assigning to him a piece of land of inferior area turally to that he obtains by the concession, because, the land rising in lue by cultivation, that portion not distributed to the colonists constirs the profit of the agency.

The contract defines precisely the rights and obligations of both ties, which may be thus indicated; the Society provides for the colonist, ides his journey from Europe, everything needful for cultivating his d and also means of subsistence till the first crops come in; the colonist ees to repay the agency in four annual instalments, the agency acceptamortgage on the land as security.

In 1911 there were 26 concessions to agencies; for most of these the le had almost expired without the families having been introduced. Let agencies had failed, and given up the attempt. Only a few could they had succeeded.

In the same year (1911) nine concessions were withdrawn from agenthat had not fulfilled their contracts.

There are various causes for these failures; many agencies declare they were not able to fulfil their contracts as the land was not assigned hen, that they could not expel the former occupiers etc. Some have ught actions against the Government and not always unsuccessfully.

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In accordance with the above laws, more than one flourishing colonial lens has been founded; at present (1911) on land appropriated for the pose there are 2,236 families consisting of 12,122 persons occupying area of 135,169 hectares. The value of the improvements made is maked at 8,797,000 pesos, but this is probably a very low estimate. The Government now proposes to colonise the territory of Magellan dividing it into small holdings. But the work has hardly been

commenced and in any case the colony would be rather pastoral the agricultural. We know that the best land has already been granted large agencies (see § 5); perhaps when the present contracts have expite and the land again becomes the property of the Government, efficacing measures may be taken.

§ 10. NEW TENDENCIES OF THE AGRICULTURAL POLICY OF CHILE.

The various elements of Chilian agriculture have now been discussy and it remains to be seen what progress has been made, and what are to present tendencies of agricultural economics.

Considering the composition and character of the great mass of white the working population is composed, it is clear that agriculture can make; progress except with the aid of the large proprietors, supported by a wippolicy on the part of the State.

Much has already been done by the large proprietors; it is owing their efforts that a large portion of the middle zone has been placed und intensive cultivation, that new crops, agricultural machinery and to some extent artificial manures have been introduced (1).

To these changes the State efficiently contributed by the foun ation in 1855 of the Mortgage Credit Bank (2), the effect of which was secure a considerable capital for agriculture. By the aid of this, may great farms originally cultivated extensively and on primitive method have become model farms yielding large returns.

The Sociedad Nacional de Agricultura, of which a certain number large landowners are members and which was founded in 1856, has at contributed largely to agricultural progress. Its object is to diffuse use information and especially to purchase agricultural machinery etc. has induced the Government to undertake the protection of agricultur to arrange the conversion of the ecclesiastical titles into a land tax, at to abolish the export duties on agricultural produce, substituting for the import duties.

Thus extensive cultivation now gives better returns, and at the present time agriculture and agricultural industries are very prosperor. The proof of this is the rapidly increasing value of landed property.

But there are signs that the collective action of agriculturists is is sufficient, and new necessities urge them to resort for the defence of the interests to other measures, which have been successful in Europe.

In his essay above mentioned, Señor Aldunate, Minister of Chili i Italy, says.

"Production and trade are subject to monopoly and to the tyram of foreign export firms, which purchase the standing crops, taking the lion's share in advance, and by means of shipping rings monopolise the transport of the produce to foreign markets."

It may be added that the agriculturist who receives an advance from an exporting firm is obliged to sell it all his crop, the price of which

 ⁽¹⁾ Only of late years have artificial manures, especially salt-petre, been used in Cal
 (2) See Bulletin of Economic and Social Intelligence, March, 1913 and March, 1914.

ked at an absurdly low figure, before the current market prices can be hown.

"Now", continues Señor Aldunate, "the remedy to be adopted is sociation among our producers and especially co-operation, so efficacious other countries.

In Chile, at the present day, association and co-operative organisation e absolutely necessary for the agriculturists who lead isolated lives, in a ingerous state of ignorance.

An equally imperious and inevitable necessity which must on no count be overlooked is that of introducing land credit and agricultural surance, which as yet do not exist in Chile."

These ideas have been favourably received in Chile and there is alady in the country a movement in favour of co-operation and agridhmal credit on a co-operative basis.

The press has unanimously supported this movement; the National dety of Agriculture has encouraged meetings and lectures on the bject; the "Agricultural Social Week of Santiago" and the District gicultural Congress of Concepción; both held in 1913, approved the llowing resolution by acclamation: "The District Congress of Concepón recommends to the agriculturists of the country the study of agridural co-operative credit on the Raiffeisen system, with the object introducing it among ourselves, and thus contributing to the progress our agriculture, and to the economic and moral elevation of our assantry."

The State on its side seeks to encourage agricultural progress more pecially through technical education and exhibitions of produce and ittle shows. The Office of Statistics has lately been re-organised, with special department for agricultural statistics, which will probably be igreat service.

But the efforts of the State in favour of agriculture cannot be efficious, without the concentration of the various departments under one afform management. They are all now independent, an arrangement of always successful.

As a remedy for these defects, a bill has been drafted for the creation a Department of Agriculture, to carry out systematically and continuisly the programme of agricultural policy demanded by the new requirements of the national agriculture.

FRANCE.

NEW VALUATION OF UNBUILT ON LAND.

(Continued.)

PART II.

THE RESULTS OF THE VALUATION.

§ I. GENERAL RESULTS.

3 1. OHMAAN RESCHIS.	
According to the estimate, the area of unbuilt on land now subject to the land tax is	ha. a. c. 50,982,393.65.80
From which must be subtracted or areas dependent on buildings to which, in accordance with the provisions of the law of	33 8,599 .61.18
December 26th., 1908, no value was assigned,	
leaving an area of	50,643, 794.04.62
	frs.
with a total rental value of	2,084,631,537
and a market price of	62,793,054,323
The average rental value per ha., for the whole	tts.
of France was thus	41
and the average market price per ha	1,240
The averages for the departments, of course, valuighest are found in the Department of Seine, when quite special. Thus, in the following pages, we shament of Seine out of consideration.	re the conditions a

As regards the other departments, the lowest rental value is reported for Basses-Alpes and Hautes-Alpes (7 fr.) and Corsica (8 fr.).

The rental value is

petween ,,	11 fr. 21 "	and "	20 fr. 30 "	•	•	•	•	•		•					in 5	departments
21	27 "	"	40 "	•	•	•	٠	•	•	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	20	,,
,,	3I "	,,	50 "	•	٠	٠	٠	٠	•	٠	•	٠		٠	" 23	"
,,	41 ,,	,,	50 66°"	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠				" 11	1)
,,	5I "	**		•	•	٠	٠	٠	٠	•	•				" 13	,,
	61 "	,,	70	•	٠	٠	•	•				٠			" 4	**
	71		8o "		٠	٠									" †	department
19	δI	"	90 "												" 2	• · ·
11	91 "	,,	100 "												" ~	departments

Finally, the rental value is 138 fr. in Nord.

The lowest market prices are observed in Hautes-Alpes (198 fr.), Bas-Alpes (204 fr.), (Corsica 262 fr.) and Lozère (458 fr.); they vary,

etween	501 and	750 fr.										_	in To	departments
27	751 "	1,000 "									•	•	" 20	debar miene
27	T.00T "	1,250 "					Ċ	·	•	•	•	•	" T7	,,
**	1,251 "	1,500 ''					Ť	•	•	•	•	•	,, <u>17</u>	,,
"	1,501 "	2,000 "	·	·	·	Ī	•	•	•	•	•	•	" 15	,,
"	2,001 "	2,500 "	Ċ	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	,, 15	,,
"	2,501 "	3,000 "						•		:	•		,, 4	,,

The market price is exceptionally high in Nord, where it is 4,423 fr. hese differences in value are due to the varying degree of fertility of the oil in the various regions and the greater or less facilities for the sale of he produce; they are also largely due to the very different proportions in thich the various types of farm and kinds of holding are found in the different departments. It is especially to this latter cause we must assign he low averages of Hautes-Alpes, Basses-Alpes, Lozère and, Corsica, where 2 %, 55 %, 51 % and 39 % of the area valued is moorland.

Under these circumstances, the general averages arrived at, whether a the case of rental value or market price, can only serve as mere indictions and, in no case, could they give a sure basis for the comparison of the stimates arrived at in the case of the different departments. A comparison an only be based on the results obtained for each type of farm.

§ 2. RESULTS ACCORDING TO TYPES OF HOLDINGS.

Before considering the results of the work of valuation from the three-ld point of view of area, rental value and market price of the various oldings, we must, in order to understand the following explanations, rember that the instructions of December 31st., 1908, with the aim of facil-

itating the operations, grouped the various types of farm under thirteen hear that is to say:

1st., Arable land,

and., Meadows and natural grass, permanent grass and grazing ground ard., Orchards and farms for the cultivation of fruit trees and shruk

4th. Vinevards:

5th., Woods, alder plots, willow plots, osier holts etc.; 6th., Moors, commons, heaths, marshes, waste land etc.

7th., Quarries, slate quarries, sandpits, peatmoss bogs, etc. : 8th., Lakes, pools, ponds, horse-ponds, springs etc., canals not he

navigation and areas in connection with them, brine pits and salt marshe oth., Gardens other than pleasure gardens and land used for market gardens ening, floriculture and ornamental gardening; nursery gardens etc.

10th., Yards, depositing sites, building sites, private roads etc. 11th., Pleasure grounds, parks, gardens, sheets of water etc.:

12th., Railways, navigable canals and dependent areas:

13th., Ground built on and rural buildings, courtyards and dependen

Only the holdings included under the first twelve heads were valued as article 2 of the law of December 26th., 1908 provided that no value short be assigned for the sites of buildings etc., of which the 13th group is en tirely composed.

ist., Area. - Among the various types of holdings there are 23,725.08 ha. of arable land alone, nearly half the entire area of the holdings or mon precisely 46.54%; next in area come the woodlands, 9,716,915 ha. (19.66%) then, in descending order, moorlands, with 7,205,648 ha. (14.13 %); med ows, 6,912,508 ha. (13.56 %) and vineyards, 1,499,048 ha. (2.94 %).

The respective areas of these five groups of types of farm, comprising altogether 96.23 % of the total area of the holdings, are necessarily distribute very differently in the various departments, according to their geological formation, geographical situation, climate and economic regime. In this connection we may make the following observations.

The area of arable land exceeds 400,000 ha. in each of 17 depart ments, all to the north of a line from Rochefort to Annecy; it is for the whole seventeen 7,815,980 ha. or nearly one third (32,93 %) of the whole area of arable land.

Woods extend over more than 200,000 ha, in 8 departments, in very diff ferent regions; 4 of them in the east, 3 in the south west and 1 in the south east. The wooded area in these eight departments alone is 2,361,893 ha or 24.31 % of the total wooded area.

Let us observe that of the total area (9,716,915 ha.) of wooded land 1,013,051 ha. are Government property. There are Government forest in all the departments, except Côtes-du-Nord, Dordogue, Lot, Lot-et-Ga ronne, Rhône and Haute-Vienne, and the territory of Belfort, but they and distributed in very unequal proportions, since Vosges has 56,077 has Government forest and Loire only 3 ha.

The moors are particularly extensive in the south. To this region ined belong the 9 departments, each of which has more than 200,000 ha. moorland, making in all 2,525,904 ha. or 35.05 % of the total moorland

We find the largest areas of meadows, permanent grass and grazingomds in two groups of departments, the first consisting of Manche, Orne
d Calvados, the second of Cantal, Saône-et-Loire and Puy-de-Dôme. The
ea of the meadows in these departments is 1,384,528 ha., which is 20.03%
the total area of the groups.

The departments in which the area cultivated as vineyard is most consid-

able also form two groups, one consisting of Hérault, Aude, Gard, Pyrésorientales and Var, the other of Gironde and Charente Inférieure. In see departments there are altogether 691,388 ha. of vineyard, 46.13 % the total area of the land under vines, of which there is none in 8 derments, that is to say; Calvados, Côtes-du-Nord, Finistère, Manche, Ind., Orne, Pas-de-Calais and Somme.

2nd., Rental Value. — The 2,084,631,537 fr., which the new valuation 788 as the total rental value, is distributed as follows, among the various .pcs of holdings:

Types of Holdings	Rental Value of Bach Group	Proportion of the Rental Value of Rach Group to the Total Rental Value
	Lacir Group	of the Holdings
	frs.	%
able Land	1,089,628,966	52.27
Grazing Grounds	447,648,701	21.47
Holts etc.	172,523,221	8.28
negards	114,610,386	5,50
Onnumental Gardening, Nursery Gardens etc thards and Farms for the Cultivation of Fruit	77,296,868	3.71
trees and Fruit Bearing Shrubs	45,718,095	2.19
loads etc	44,661,005	2.14
Water etc.	43,749,408	1.10
ors, Commons, Heaths, Marshes, Waste Land etc.	31,212,961	1.50
aways, Navigable Canals and Dependent Areas. ics, Pools, Ponds, Horse-Ponds, Fountains etc., anals not for Navigation and Dependent Areas.	10,850,520	0.52
arries, Slate Quarries Sand Dits Deat Moss	6,050,586	0.29
Bogs etc	680,819	0,03
Total	2,084,631,537	100.00

Yet in order to appreciate the relative value of the unbuilt on land; the various parts of the country we must consider the average per h assigned to it. We shall consider the results of the work of valuation

from this point of view.

It has seemed advisable, in order that the explanations following the be better understood, to divide France into regions, based as far as possis on the geographical position of the departments, the character and fertile of the soil, the kind of produce and its value, the principal crops etc These regions, eleven in number, consist of the following detent

ments. (The Department of Seine is not here considered): 1st region. - Nord, Pas-de-Calais, Somme, Oise, Alsne, Seine et Oise 2nd region. - Seine-Inférieure, Calvados, Manche, Eure, Eure,

Loire, Orne, Sarthe, Mayenne;

ard region - Ille-et-Vilaine, Côtes-du-Nord, Finistère, Morbihan L re-Inférieure, Maine-et-Loire;

4th region. — Vendée, Deux-Sèvres, Vienne, Haute-Vienne, Dordon Charente, Charente-Inférieure;

5th region - Gironde, Lot-et-Garonne, Landes, Basses-Pyrénées, He tes-Pyrénées, Gers, Tarn-et-Garonne, Tarn, Haute-Garonne, Ariège: 6th region. - Pyrénées-Orientales, Aude, Hérault, Gard, Bouchese

Rhône, Var, Alpes-Maritimes, Corsica; 7th region. - Hautes-Alpes, Basses-Alpes, Vaucluse, Drôme, Isère, &

voie, Haute-Savoie Ain, Jura, Doubs; 8th region. - Haute-Saône, Territory of Belfort, Vosges, Meurth

et-Moselle, Meuse, Ardennes, Marne, Aube, Haute-Marne; 9th region. - Yonne, Côte-d'Or, Saône-et-Loire, Rhône, Loire, Pn

de-Dôme, Allier, Nièvre; 10th region Cher, Loiret, Loir-et-Cher, Indre-et-Loire, Indre;

11th region. - Creuse, Corrèze, Lot, Aveyron, Lozère, Ardèch

Haute-Loire, Cantal.

The average rental value per ha, for the five principal types of holin in each region is as follows:

	==		_				_			Renta	i Value per I (frs.)	lectare	
	Re	glo	10.5	5					Arable Land	Meadows cte.	Woodland etc.	Vineyards	Mooris etc
region and region ard region 4th region 6th region 7th region 9th region 6th region 6th region 6th region 1th region 1th region 1th region 1th region									78 60 57 38 37 34 49 24 40 36	103 90 69 60 55 55 41 55 68 57	28 21 21 14 18 8 14 24 19 18	95 56 77 49 66 86 66 118 103 69 59	13
All	he	I	: 1	re	gic	11.5			46	65	18	76	

When these averages are compared, we do not find extraordinary differ-The first region, indeed, shows the highest averages for arable land meadows, a consequence of the quite exceptional prosperity it owing to the nature of its soil, its temperate climate, its dense milation and easy means of communication. The averages, while still h fall progressively in the second and third regions, both very famous livek improvement districts, the soil of which is also very fertile, but which at a greater distance from Paris and are less well provided with railways. averages for arable land and meadows are lower in the fourth, fifth and h regions; but the differences in the averages for these regions are not v appreciable. It will be remarked that the average for arable land is in higher in the seventh region, which includes the Rhone valley, but for the meadows still falls, as in this region they are chiefly mountain hires, the revenue from which is small. The eighth region has a larger of arable land of inferior quality: this is why we find there the minimaverage rental value for this type of farms; on the other hand, it a very large number of good meadows, especially in the valley of the 180. and so the average for meadows rises. The ninth region, coning partly of mountain land and partly of plains, occupies an intermedposition and in it the averages both for arable land and meadows nearly the same as the general averages for the whole of France. Finally, average rental values again fall in the tenth region, of which a considerpart, the plains of Berry and Sologne, is little productive, and they even more in the 11th region, composed of departments of comparely small population, where the soil is often sterile, and communication ifficult.

Like that of arable land and meadows and for similar reasons, the avervalue of woodlands is very high in the first three regions, whilst it appreciably in the fourth. In the fifth there are many thriving plantons of maritime pines, along the shores of the Bay of Biscay, but, as it includes the greater part of the Pyrenees, covered with forests, the lottation of which is very difficult and little remunerative, the average rises slightly. It reaches its minimum in the sixth region, owing he fall in value of the principal kinds of trees of the district: everin oak, the bark of which, formerly, used in the tanneries, is now much in demand, and chestnut trees, formerly cultivated, because barrel ps were made from the wood and now more and more neglected since thas been employed for the purpose. But in proportion as we go north find the average rising rapidly; the rise, already very marked in the enth region is especially noticeable in the eighth, where there are many forests of folious and resinous trees. Finally, while less important from point of view of forestry, the regions of the centre have also fine forests, han average value equivalent to the general average for France, in the th and tenth regions, and falling a little below this average in the 'enth region, the economic conditions of which, as already shown, are

avourable

There are not many vineyards in the first three regions, in some d_{elgr} ments even there are none at all. The fairly high average value show for them in the first region is due in some degree to the additional value give to holdings by their proximity to Paris. In fact, the value of the vineyan of the first region is highest in the department of Seine et-Oise. Anoth cause also contributes to this, namely, that, as a rule, where vineyards, few their products are fairly often consumed in the district itself, who they are, consequently, in demand, and sold at remunerative prices. In 1 second region, where the first of the above causes comes less into play if average falls rather considerably. It rises again in the third region, on accomm of the vineyards of Anjou, the wines of which are highly appreciated, and tho of Lower Bretagne producing wines which are esteemed. Vineyards become more numerous in the fourth region, especially in the Charentes, where 6 gnac is made: however, the average value is low, wine farms having he a great deal of their value since the ravages caused by the phylloxen The average rises again in the fitth region, which includes the Ra deaux district, renowned for its vineyards, and again in the sixtle where vines are by far the most important crop. In the seventh region we find the same conditions as in the first three regions: wine being little plentiful there, it is sold at high prices; in addition, some of the wines of the region, those of Jura, Rhône and Drôme are much appreciated. In the cight region, which includes Champagne, and the nuith in which Burgundy is in cluded, we find the highest averages. due to the excellence of their wine and their world wide reputation. While considerably lower, the average in the tenth region is still fairly high, there being here also some god vinevards, those of Touraine. for example. Then it falls again in the elevent region, which is of only secondary importance from the point of view of vit culture. Moorland, by its nature, as a rule, only gives an inconsiderable m turn and consequently the valuation of it presents little interest. We find the highest average rental value of this class of holdings in the second

3rd., Market Price. — As we know, the department of Direct Taxation only established the rental value or net revenue of unbuilt on land, it also ascertained its market price at the same time.

animals and as litter.

and third regions, where there are districts of livestock improvement, and the natural produce of the region can be easily utilised for feeding the

Let us, however, remark that enquiry into the market price was not ordered by the law of December 31st., 1907, but only enjoined, for statistical purposes, in the Ministerial Instructions of December 31st., 1908. Their formation under this head, which has not yet been submitted to the double check of comparison with the estimate of the relative value and communication to the landowners, is not consequently as reliable as that for the rental value; but the information in the papers none the less is of great interest as evidence.

According to the results of the work of valuation, the market priced the holdings, amounting to 62, 793, 054, 323 frs., is distributed as follows among the various types of farm or holdings:

Types of Farms or Holdings	Market P-ice of Rach Group	Proportion of the Rental Value of Each Group to the Total Rental Value of the Holdings
•	fra.	%
Arable Land	32,937,368,427	52.45
Crazing Grounds	12,983,659,261	20,68
Holts etc.	6,025,284,203	9.60
ineyards	3, 0 47,398,802	4.80
used for Market Gardening, Floricultture and proamental Gardening, Nursery Gardens etc.	2,210,325,159	3.52
leasure Grounds, Parks, Gardens, Sheets of Water etc.	1,386,151,671	2,21
rchards and Farms for the Cultivation of Fruit frees and Fruit Bearing Shrubs	1,224,118,044	r.95
ards, Depositing Sites, Building Sites, Private	1,213,108,264	1.9
COOTS, Commons, Heaths, Marshes, Waste	1,143,110,254	1.82
ailways, Navigable Canals and Dependent Arcas	432,687,280	0.69
akes, Pools, Ponds, Horse Ponds, Fountains te., Canals not for Navigation and Dependent Areas, Brine Pits and Salt Marshes	167,677,117	0.27
uarries, Slate Quarries, Sand Pits, Peat Moss	22,165,841	0.03
Total	62,793,054,323	100,00

It is seen from the above table that the order of the types of farm most the same when they are classified in respect to their total rental e and when they are classified in respect to their market price. When the market prices thus established are considered in connection the areas, we obtain the following averages per hectare for the five s of holding occupying the largest areas;

Arable Land	1,388 fr.
Meadows and Natural Grass, Permanent Grass	
and Grazing Ground	1,878 "
Woodland, Alder Plots, Willow Plots, Osier	•
Holts. etc.	620 "
Vineyards	2,033 "
Moorland, Commons, Heaths, Marshes, Waste	
Land etc	159 "

The state of the s		
These averages are reached or exceeded: In the case of Arable Land	in 36 De	Dartments
In that of Meadows and Natural Grass,		1
Permanent Grass and Grazing		
Ground	" 30	"
In that of Woodland, Alder Plots, Wil-		
low Plots, Osier Holts etc	" 4I	"
In that of Vineyards	" 29	"
In that of Moorland, Commons, Heaths,	-	
Marshes Waste Land etc	" 46	,,

It is in the Department of Nord, in which agriculture, as we have ready had occasion to point out, is especially prosperous, that we father the highest average market prices per ha., in the case of arable $\frac{1}{2}$ (4,332 fr.), of meadows (4,453 fr.), of woodland (2,283 fr.) and $\frac{1}{2}$ more than 1000
The highest market price per ha. (6,058 fr.) for vineyards is reached Marne, where the large Champagne vineyards are.

The following table shows the average rate of interest per ha, for whole country as the result of a comparison of the market price and rental value:

There are the said		Date vertex		Market Price		Average
Types of moldings	Arca	Total	Average per hectare	Total	Average per hectare	Bate of Interest
	be. s.	france	france	france	france	*
Arable Land. Meadows, Natural Grass, Permanent Grass and Graz.	23,725,083 21 41 1,089,628,966	1,089,628,966	46	32,937,368,427	1,388	3.31
ing Grounds Orchards and Farms for the Cultivation of Fruit Trees	6,912,507 74 46	5 447,648,702	65	12,983,659,261	1,878	3.45
and Fruit Bearing Shrubs	743,339 23 15	45,718,095		1.224.118.044	1.647	
Vineyards Woodlands Alder Dist. William West.	1,499,047 31 26	-	26	3,047,398,802		7,0
Moore Commone Heaths Market waster Land at	9,716,915 31 35	-	18	6,025,284,203	620	2.86
mons, medius, maisurs, waste Land etc.	7,205,648 28 05	Э1,	4	1,143,110,254	150	2.73
Quarries, State Quarries, Sand Pits, Peat Moss Rogs, etc. Lakes, Pools, Ponds, Horse Ponds, Fountains etc., Tanails not Navizable, and Dependent Arres Prins.	16,919 30 52		0	22,165,841	1,310	3.07
Pits and Salt Marshes. Gardens other than Pleasure Gardens and Land used	176,040 93 75	6,050,586	34	167,677,117	952	3.6x
for Market Gardening, Nursery Gardens etc. Varist Denositing Sites Building Sites Delayers	396,878 35 71	77,296,868	195	2,210,325,159	5,569	3.50
Pleasure Grounds, Parks, Gardens, Sheets of Water etc.	108 120 22 27	44,661,005	1,847	1,213,108,264	50,168	3.68
Railways, Navigable Canals and Dependent Areas	119,094 31 76	10,850,520	91	1,300,151,071 432,687,280	3,633	3.16
Total of Groups I to I2	50,643,794 04 62 2,084,631,537	2,084,631,537	#	62,793,054,323	1,240	3.32
Areas occupied by Buildings, Farm Buildings, Court Yards and Dependent Areas	338,599 6r I8	*	æ	*	2	
Total Area	50,982,393 65 80	a	*			*

440 10

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> 12 11 20 O

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4th., Statistics of Landowners. — The work of v. the occasion and the means for an approximate esti of landowners. In order to arrive at it, the following lowed, each commune being taken in turn:	aluation h mation of g course w	as providi the numb as adopte
From the number of tax papers. Deduction has been made of the following, either as they do not correspond with landowners or correspond with those elsewhere considered: 1st. Papers referring to collective holdings. 2nd. Multiple papers (that is those for a single landowner), (only one being retained) 3rd. Papers referring to landowners not resident in the commune under consideration.		¹ 3,440,2
Y	6,333,907	6,333,0
Leaving a balance of tax papers corresponding with	1	
Then in order to arrive at the real number of land-		6,800,31
owners, there were added to the above: 1. 1st. the number of joint landowners on the papers for		
collective holdings, not taxed separately	396,877	
and. The landowners not paying land tax in the com-	33-7-77	
mune where they are domiciled	317,726	
This addition, which was necessary as the corresponding papers had not been counted in the communes where the holdings were situated, raised the total number of landowners to	714,603	714,60 7,520,
It seemed desirable to compare the number of l in this way with the number of tax papers, the numb households, according to the census of 1911.		
These comparisons give the following averages for	the whole	of Fran
560 landowners per 1,000 tax pap 195 " 1,000 inhabita 756 " 1,000 househo	nts	
These averages naturally vary with the region of landowners per 1,000 land tax papers is only 3 in Yonne; it is	n. Thus, th 364 in Aub	e, and :
	in 19 depa	rtment
" 501 " 600	"34 "20	n
701 700	" 11	'n
and is 857 in Morbihan.		

The number 190 in Seine	I. férieu	owners re.	per 1,000	inhabitants i	s only 22 in Seine
is between	103 and	1 150 200		· · · · in	7 departments
11				"	

It rises to 357 in Savoie, 352 in Gers and Haute-Savoie, 357 in Bassess, 364 in Ariège and 377 in Lot.

The number of landowners per 1,000 households is lowest in Seine

350 . . .

is between 323 and 500 in 7 departments

" 501 " 600 " 7 "

" 601 " 700 . . . " 14 "

" 701 " 800 . . . " 10 "

" 801 " 900 . . . " 14 "

" 901 " 1,000 . . . " 17 "

" 1,001 " 1,250 . . . " 12 "

lt rises to 1,282 in Lot, 1,291 in Lozère, 1,236 in Savoie, 1,364 in Hauteie and 1,377 in Ariège.

§ 3 COMPARISON OF THE AREAS VALUED IN 1908 WITH THOSE VALUED IN 1851 AND 1879.

c. Classification of Holdings. — As the valuation of 1908, the results nich have just been given, was preceded by two general valuations in and 1879, it has seemed desirable to compare the information obtained ese three occasions, so as to be able to judge of the changes that have place since 1850 in the character of the farms and the fluctuations evalue of the holdings during the peri d.

The various types of farms were divided in to thirteen groups for the ses of the valuation in 1908, while they were only divided into seven swhen the earlier valuations were made. It was therefore indispension adopt a uniform mode of classifying the holdings before a commodule be made. With this object, the results of the three valuations were classified in six groups as follows:

Groups Formed for Purposes of Comparison	Group formed for the Valuation of to
r. Land of Superior Quality and Land Various by Cultivated	(a) Orchards etc. (b) Gardens, other than Pleasure Gard
2. Arable Land and Land Valued in the Same Way	(a) Arable Land. (b) Quarties etc. (c) Lakes etc. (d) Yards etc. (e) Pleasure Grounds etc. (f) Railways etc. (g) Land Built on etc.
3. Meadows and Grass Land	(s) Meadows etc.
4. Vineyards	(a) Vineyards.
5. Woodlands	(a) Woodland belonging to Private 0 and Incorporated Bodies and not State.
6. Moorland, Commons, Pastures and other Uncultivated Land	(a) Moors, Commons etc.

war of 1870-71. In 1879 the area was 50, 035,159 ha., including the dexement of Corsica not included in the valuation of 1851, and the department Alpes-Maritimes, Savoie and Haute-Savoie, incorporated with France 1860; in 1908 it was 49,986,743 ha., not including the State forests.

It is observed that the total area valued in 1879, exclusive of the an

in the four departments mentioned, was 17,245 ha. more than that value in 1851. The area valued in 1851 again exceeds that valued in 1908 more than 62, 738 ha. Finally, if we compare the areas for the whole France in 1879 and 1908, not excluding Corsica, Alpes.-Maritimes and Saw we find a difference of more than 66,416 ha. in favour of the former ye

These differences, not very considerable in themselves, are due to creases and diminutions of the area of holdings, portions becoming su ject to taxation or ceasing to be so; they are also to some extent due to incorporation of real estate with the State forest domains, which, will

still subject to taxation, are not included in the figures compared.

3. Areas of Land of Superior Quality and Land Cultivated in Varia
Ways. The results given by the three valuations, as regards these are
may be summarised as follows (1).

1851	٠	٠	•	•	٠	•	٠	٠		٠	٠	٠	•	٠	1,337,947	na.
1870														1	1,398,758	Þ
10/9	٠	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1	I,310,737	,
7008														1	1,140,218	,
1906	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	ĺ	1,398,758 1,310,737 1,140,218 1,058,718	×

⁽¹⁾ As, in the valuation of 1851, Alpes-Maritimes, Corsica, Savoic and Haute's were not included, it is only possible to compare the results given by it with those's

As we see, the areas of this group have decreased as follows, since 1857:

			1079												ha.
a	1879	Э	1908	•	٠	•	•	•						258,540	э
я	1851	D	1908	•		•	•			•				279,229	3

It would be difficult to assign a definite signification to these variations they are due, to a considerable degree, to differences of classification for three valuations. The ature of the real estate to be included in a group of land cultivated in various ways not being sufficiently deed in 1851 and 1879, holdings were frequently included in this group ich in 1908 were classed in other groups than those of orchards and gards. However, it may be affirmed that the area of the holdings of this up has really diminished to an appreciable degree in certain departs, as, for example in Ardèche and Hérault, on account of the reduced tivation of olive trees and the abandonment of that of chestnuts; and in be, Aveyron, Cher, Lot-et-Garonne, Nièvre and Vienne, through the disaparance of hempfields. The most considerable increases are due to the mation of orchards in Basses-Alpes and Calvados, to the extension of the gardening in Seine-et-Marne and Seine-et-Oise and the increased tivation of early fruit and vegetables, in Vaucluse.

4. Area of Arable Land and Holdings Valued in the Same Way. — The a of the arable land and holdings valued in the same way was as foll-sat the three dates:

in	1851	٠	-			٠	-			٠						25,009,762 hectares
,	1870							_		_						26,173,657 » 25,383,105 »
	,,	Ť	٠	-	٠		Ī	•	٠	٠	•	•	•	•	•	25.383,105 »
н	TO08	_														24,508,057 a 23,987,186 s
	1900	•	٠	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	23,987,186

The area therefore increased between 1851 and 1879, this being the ult of the prosperous state of agriculture at the time; it then decreased ween 1879 and 1908. A comparison of the results for 1851 and 1908 also was a decrease.

The area of this group decreased successively in 1879 and 1908, in 28 artments and increased both in 1879 and 1908 in 17 others; in six departnts it decreased in the period 1851-1879, to increase again in the

he valuations of 1879 and 1908 on condition that the figures for the above departis are first subtracted from the results given for the two latter years. Consequently, shall show the results for each valuation (limiting our comparison, however, to the ations of 1879 and 1908) in figures of ordinary type, while we shall show in *stables* figures given by each valuation for the whole country, exclusive of Alpes-Maritimes, ica, Savole and Haute-Savole, and the increases or diminutions shown by a comparison best results, on the one hand, for the period 1851-1879 and, on the other, for the id 1851-1908. period 1879-1908; finally in 32 there was an increase in the period 1851-18 followed by a decrease between 1879 and 1908.

Comparing only the figures for the years 1851 and 1908, we find total decrease of 2,061,383 ha. in 56 departments. This is due in a gene sense to the depopulation of the country districts, the consequent scare of labourers and the rise in wages which has led to the abandonment much poor land, now lying fallow, or to the transformation of cultivate fields into meadows and forests, according to the region. It may howen be due to quite other causes; this is especially the case in Gironde, Héran and Pyrénées-Orientales, where a portion of the area has been devoted viticulture, which is more remunerative.

On the other hand, we find that the area of arable land has increas since 1851 in 27 departments by 1,038,807 ha. in all. This is, as a rule, if result of the clearing of moors and woodlands in regions where the railwas constructed facilitate the sale of the produce. It is especially the case: Bretagne and the departments of the centre, as Indre, Creuse and Viennel some departments, especially in Gers and the Charentes, it is due to the destruction of vineyards by phylloxera.

The area of arable land has decreased since 1879 in Alpes-Maritime Corsica and Savoy, but only to an appreciable degree in Corsica, where the continually increasing scarcity of labourers is causing a corresponding negles of cultivation.

Finally, leaving out of consideration the above mentioned department not included in the valuation of 1851, the diminished area of arable in is partly balanced by increases, so that altogether today the total are is only 1,022,576 ha. or 4.09 % less than that shown as the result of the earlier valuation.

 Area of Meadows and Grass Land. — The fluctuations in the area of Meadows and Grass land may be summarised as under:

																4,603,418	
	1870															4,998,280	ы
"	10/9.	٠	•	•	•	•	•	٠		٠	•	•	•	•	•	4,817,603	4
	Took															6,670,000	10
"	1900.	•	•	•	•	٠	٠	•	•	٠	٠	•	٠	٠	٠	6 670.000	ъ

As we see, the increase in the area of meadowland, which began fore 1879, has continued since then, and assumed far greater importance. This increase is due to the cause already mentioned, the depopulation the country districts which has led to the conversion into meadow land much land formerly cultivated in a manner demanding a large number labourers. It is also a consequence of the extension of livestock improment and dairy farming. We must, however, observe that the above case only partially account for the increase in some departments, especily Cantal, Loire and Doubs, where the grazing grounds, now right classified with the meadows, were previously grouped with the moors, with variously cultivated land.

6. Area of Vineyards. — The area of the	vineyards	was as follows	
the dates of the three valuations:	,	10110113	

ш 1051	2,142,811	ha.
» 1879	2,320,533))
» 1908	1,499,048	ж.
	1,479,038	»
Considerable changes in the area of the Fre	ench viney	vards have been

roduced by the ravages of the phylloxera, which began a little before 1870 1 the South, and then spread to the Bordelais and gradually to all the inegrowing regions. Yet viticulture had extended to such a degree before 18 appearance of the phylloxera that in 1879 the area of the French ineyards was still 139,486 ha. more than in 1851. The ravages of the phyloxera were greatest after 1879, so that nearly 1,500,000 ha. of former ineyards had been abandoned in 1892. In spite of numerous new plantions, the present area under vines is still 821,485 ha. less than in 1879 and 13,772 ha. less than in 1851. Let us add that in a certain number of departents (Aube, Eure, Eure-et-Loire, Loiret, Haute-Marne, Meurthe-et-Molle, Meuse, Haute-Vienne etc.), the vine is gradually disappearing, ei-

the considerable rise in wages.

7. Area of Woodland. — Woodland belonging to private individuals incorporated bodies, and not to the State, occupied in succession the flowing areas:

er because the nature of the soil and the climate are unfavourable or cause the small yield from it is not sufficiently remunerative in view

, in	1851							7,672,757	ha.
								8,397,131 7,946,263	
	/50	• •	• •	• •	• • •		• •	7,946,263	15
	1008							8,703,264 8,237,258	D
•	1900	• •				• • •		8.237.258)è

The total area occupied by forests therefore has regularly increased are 1851.

The increase was continuous in 26 departments and the diminution is so in 18; the increase was limited to the period 1879-1908 in 27 other partments. Finally, in 12 departments, the increase observed in 1879 is followed by a diminution. The situation has been nearly stationary ice 1879 in the Alpes-Maritimes, Corsica and Savoy, with a slight decase in the first mentioned of these departments, and comparatively unimitant increases in the others.

If we take the entire period 1851-1908, we find that the woodland area—

clusive of the four departments not estimated in 1851—has increased by 4,621 ha, in 40 departments and diminished by 430,120 ha, in 43 others.

The increase of woodland holdings is generally due to numerous plant-

ions on land of inferior quality, the cultivation of which has been aban-

doned on account of its increasing cost, or in vineyards destroyed by phylonera. To these causes is due the increase of woodland in Aube, Cob d'Or, Dordogne, Doubs, Loir-et-Cher, Marne, Haute-Marne, Var, Vaucluse Vosges etc. The increase of woodland in Gironde and Landes is due to large plantations of pines along the shore; it is, however, to be observed that there has been a slight diminution of the wooded area in Landes.

The departments where a diminution has been observed are aller Haute-Garonne, Gers, Isère, Loire-Inférieure, Lot, Nièvre, Saône-et-Loire where the forests have been cleared to an appreciable degree, and Basses Pyrénées, where 30,000 hectares of wood have been destroyed by a crypt organic disease.

Finally in a few departments, the difference shown is due to certain wooded holdings not being classified in the same way at the date of the time valuations. Thus the decreases shown in Hautes-Alpes, Cantal and Corrèva are due, in large part, to the fact that, for the earlier valuations, land merely covered with bushwood or bush in the first of these departments was classified wrongly as woodland, and chestnut woods exploited principally for the chestnuts, in the two other departments, were similarly wrongly classified. In the same way, the increase in Haute-Vienne is due to the inclusion in 1908 in the group of woodland of chestnut woods specially grown for their wood and formerly included in the group of variously cultivated holdings.

 8^{th} . Area of Moorland, Commons, Grazing Grounds and other U_{newl} -tivated Land.

The area of this group is shown in the following figures:

in	1851	٠	•	٠	٠		٠		•	٠				•	•	7,188,634	ha.
	7840															6,746,800 6,232,569	B
,	10/9	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	٠	•	•	•	•	6,232,569	n
	C															7,205,648	13
,	1900	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	6,451,291	20

The area of these holdings decreased by 956,065 ha. between 1851 and 1879; it then increased by 458,848 ha. between 1879 and 1908; finally, the changes in the period 1851-1908 resulted in a diminution of 737,343 lie

The moorland area has only shown a constant increase in 10 departments, in 43 others there were decreases observed in 1879, and then in creases in 1908; the contrary was observed in 2 departments. Finally 28 departments show a constantly decreasing area from 1851 to 1908. The moorland area has decreased since 1879 in Alpes-Maritimes, Corsic and Savoie; and it has also become less in Haute-Savoie.

The increases and diminutions observed in the moorland areas correspond generally with the diminutions and increases shown for other kinds of holdings.

In fact it is seen that in the departments where the moorland area has decreased since 1851 most considerably, the Breton departments, Allier Bouches-du-Rhône, Cher, Gironde, Indre, Landes and Vienne, there has been a large increase in the area of arable land, meadows and woodland.

On the other hand, in those departments in which there has been the gest increase in the area of uncultivated land in the last sixty years, in lutes Alpes, Ardèche, Ariège, Dordogne, Drôme, Lot and Pyrénées-Oriens, it is due to the depopulation of the country districts, where the insign cost of labour has led to the desertion of holdings of inferior ality, or to the phylloxera, after the devastations of which a large imber of vineyards have been left uncultivated.

In some departments, however, as in Doubs, Mayenne, Marne and 17-de Dôme, the difference between the results of 1851 and 1908 is part-due to the classification of some moorland in different classes at each ressive valuation. The same is true in the case of Savoie and Hautevoie. We shall make special mention of Corsica, where since 1879 the 28 of uncultivated land has increased almost threefold owing to the reasing abandonment of agriculture in this department.

§ 4. COMPARISON OF RENTAL VALUE AND MARKET PRICE.

1st. Total Rental Value and Market Price of all the Holdings and of Each pe of Farms. — For the whole of France the successive valuations in 1851, 79 and 1908 were as follows:

			Da	te	of	V	alt	uat	iot	1					Rental Value	Market Price
		 _			_						-		 	 	 frs.	fra.
t															1,824,186,249	61,189,030,452
)	٠.			٠											2,645,505,565	91,583,966,075
}		٠													2,056,949,814	61,757,233,533

As we said when dealing with the areas, the results of the valuation 1851 do not include information concerning the departments of Alpesnimes, Corsica, Savoie and Haute-Savoie. It is, therefore, necessary in comparing these results with those of the later valuations, to leave se four departments out of consideration. The following table, in which rental values and market prices are given for the three dates in question, been drawn up with due regard to this point.

		esults of the Valuation	
we have a second of the second		estudios de tole valuatio	a .
	1.1		
	54		
	of 1851	Of 1879	Of :
		•	
·	frs.	tra.	
•			٠
			. 1
and of Superior Quality and Land Cul-	108,586,414	145,517,431	123
tivated in Various Ways	108,586,414	135,031,344	116
Arable Land and Land Valued in the	1,049,577,511	1,485,097,569	1.24
Same Way	1,049,577,511	1,460,974,662	I,195, I,173,
	• .	.0	-1-/3
Meadows and Grass Land	334,237,816 3 34, 23 7, 816	483,159,306	447.
	334,237,010	474,966,026	440,
m	145,401,087	301,545,815	II4
Theyards	145,401,087	293,892,546	112,
	153,073,660	188,910,406	'
Wood Land	153,073,660	184,279,269	144,
			140,
foorland, Commons, Pastures and Other	33,309,761	41,275,038	31,
Uncultivated Land	33, 3 09,761	39,231,788	29,
	1,824,186,249	2,645,505,565	2,056,0
Total	1,824,186,240	2,588,375,635	2,074
٠.		,	-144
			2
and of Superior Quality and Land Cul-	3,767,231,984	4,730,271,762	3,4344
tivated in Various Ways	3,767,231,984	4,437,399,293	3,279,2
44 * 1 7 7 7 7 7 7 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4		57,514,810,648	36,159,1
rable Land and Land Valued in the	36,704,707,970	56,708,554,641	35,478,0
Same Way	36,704,707,970	30,700,334,041	J3:4/%
	10,427,581,043	14,799,518,127	12,983,6
Foodows and Cases Your		14,540,124,618	12,738,7
feadows and Grass Land	10,427,581,043	-4101-111	
Seadows and Grass Land			3,047.3
	4,357,171,278	6,887,902,398	3,047,3 2,007,3
		6,887,902,398 6,720,252,751	2,997,3
Meadows and Grass Land	4,357,171,278	6,887,902,398	

1,108,055,109 1,108,055,109

61,189,030,452 61,189,030,452

1,143,1 1,081,5

1,394,532,180 1,330,956,366

91,583,966,075 61,757.8 89,848,101,805 60,398,1

Moorland, Commons, Pastures and Other Uncultivated Land

n 1851 a	nd 1879	Betwee	n 1879 and 1908	Between 18	51 and 1908
15¢	Decrease	Increase	Decrease	Increase	Decrease
	fis.	fra.	frs.	frs.	frs.
		1	1	,	
44,9 3 0	13 10	n n	22,502,468	8,110,179	16 20
97,151)) ·	19 1)	289,476,26 ₅	» 124,2 45 ,616	n
28,210))	16 38	. 35,510,604	, 106,643,086	0 21
91,459	30 35	» . »	186,935,429 »	D H	» 32,582,470
05,609	19 33	9	44,068,908	2) 79	и
	,)	10,062,077	n	12,340,021
22,027			•		3,509,881
9,386	»	N N	588,555,751 "	» 238,998,881	48,402,372
				Increase: 1	90,596,509
					,
7,309	10	» »	1,295,828,559	» 9	» 487,967,342
16,671	n 35	8	21,355,652,048	э л	I,226,659,4 4 9
3.575)) D	D p	1,815,858,866 *	, 2,311,188,952	9
1,473	5 b	n .	3,840,503,596	»	» 1,359,801,289
1,068)g 18	n o	1,267,467,547	39	» 1,130,844
1,257	»	» »	251,421,926	13	26,500,998
		,	29,826,732,542		

Decrease: 790,870,970

This table shows that in 1879 the rental values and market prices in considerably increased in the whole country and in 1908 they had fall almost to the figures for 1851. These variations were due to the gener causes already considered: a period of prosperity before 1879, and the an agricultural crisis due to rural exodus and still continuing,

The fall in value of land since 1879 has been proportionally greater in respe to market price than to rental value. The same is seen on a dira comparison of the results of the valuations in 1851 and 1908, which revea a rise in rental value and a fall in market price. This is due to important changes which have taken place in agriculture, the introduction of the co tivation of cattle foods and industrial crops, the increase in the numb of markets, the multiplication of the means of communication and the ployment of chemical manures etc, which have had the effect of raising the rates of lease. The market prices have not benefited to the samed gree by these favourable conditions, for unbuilt on land is far less in deman to day than fifty or sixty years ago. In the middle of the last centur interest was sacrificed in the desire to purchase or increase a holding, an the possession of the smallest parcel was ardently contended for by many asni ants. Nowadays, on the contrary, people are indisposed to immobilis capital in investments in land, and so hinder its easy realisation. At the inviation of the various credit establishments, they invest it in personal secur ities, which offer many advantages: extreme fluidity under the simples and least burdensome conditions, easy collection of interest etc. Hence landed property has a markedly inferior position and its market price ha of course fallen.

If the total results of 1008 to an appreciable extent agree with those he 1851, they are not equally distributed as regards the various groups. The chief reason for this is that changes have taken place in the area of each groun Thus, in respect to meadow land, the area of which has increased, there has been a parallel increase in the rental value and market price on those shown i 1851. In the same way, in the case of vineyards and moorlands, a de crease in value corresponds with a loss of area. On the other hand, woodlands the area of which has, however, considerably increased since 1851, show a appreciable decrease in market price and even more in rental value.

The groups of areas of superior quality and various cultivation an of arable land show an increase in rental value and a decrease in marke price. However, it is to be remarked that these groups could not be com stituted exactly as in 1851 and that also the figures in the second group do not admit of fair comparison as the sites of buildings and areas depend ent on buildings were valued in 1851 and not in 1908.

2nd. Rental Value and Market Price per hectare. — The total rental val ues and market prices per type of farms, as shown in 1851, 1879 and 1900 present differences not only due to economic causes, but much more to changes in the constitution of the various groups. An examination of them, therefore will not enable us to form an idea of the fluctuations value of land in the period contemplated, and to arrive at this we must comare the average rental value and market price per ha., according to each aluation. These averages were as follows:

								_	Valuation	of	_
								1851	1879	1908	
	_		_					frs.	irs.	frs.	
Average Average	Rental Market	Value per Price per	ha.	•	:	 · · ·	I,2	38 76	53 1 ,83 0	41 1,244	

Let us now consider the particular situation of the six types of farms

ompared:

(a) Land of Superior Quality and Land Variously Cultivated. — The averge rental value and market price per ha. for this type of farms varied as slows, between 1851 and 1908:

		Valuation	of
	1851 frs.	1879 frs.	1908
Average Rental Value per ha	8r	104	frs. 108
Average Market Price per ha	2,815	3,382	3,013

The averages for rental value show a constant increase. In 1908, deed, there were only included in this group gardens cultivated for profit id orchards, while in previous years, under the head of areas variously ilivated there were included pastures, pools, marshes, peat moss bogs, goons etc, of much less value. Under these circumstances, the comparison nonly have a limited value. We shall therefore confine ourselves to pointgout that, in a general way, the portion of the area of this group consistg of gardens has really gained in value in the environs of the towns, y way of exception, in some departments there has been a decrease in lue due to special causes: the want of opportunities for easy and immedies ale and depopulation (Corsica and Basses-Alpes), the disease of the ive trees (Bouches du-Rhône), the sericicultural crisis (Gard) etc.

The market price does not always vary in the same way as the rental lue. The chief reason of this is that there is a much greater demand rithe lease of gardens in the neighbourhood of towns than for the purchase them and consequently an increased rental value does not necessarily tail a correspondingly increased market price.

(b) Arable Land and Areas Valued in the Same Way. — The average valper hectare of arable land was in turn as follows:

		Valutation of	
	1851	1879	1908
	frs.	frs.	frs.
Rental Value per hectare	. 42	57	49
Market Price per hectare	1,479	2,197	1,496

We have already explained with regard to the total rental values and arket prices that the considerable rise observed in 1879 was followed a fall. This is again seen in the results shown for a rable land, the value

of which best indicates the price of farms. In fact, there were increases in rental value in all the departments except 3, and in market price in a except 9; and the diminutions in these cases were trifling. Between 18, and 1908, there was an almost general decrease, since there were only a departments in which the rental value showed a rise and only 14 in which the market price had risen.

The averages are in many cases higher than in 1851, above all the averages for the rental value. It is incontestable, in fact, that, in spite a the increasing cost of labour, arable land has become, in many regions, now remunerative within the last sixty years, owing to improved methods a cultivation, the use of agricultural machinery and chemical manure, the formation of artifical meadows, increased means of transport etc.

The effects of the above causes in the way of increasing values have been approximated to the same part of the same part

especially evident in the West and Centre of France and in the Basse Pyrénées. The extended cultivation of industrial crops in Nord and the diging of important irrigating canals in Bouches-du-Rhône have also led to a similar increase in rental value and market price in these departments sing 1851. Let us also mention the important increase in average value in Alpes-Maritimes, since 1879, due to the extensive cultivation of flowers. But these increases are not due only to the causes just enumerated; they have been influenced by the fact that this group of areas includes yard, building lots and pleasure grounds, which were previously valued in the same way as arable land, but, in 1908, their real value, which is far higher, was assigned to them. This has more especial reference to departments in

Together with the increases on the figures for 1851 of which we have just spoken, we find decreases in a certain number of departments, either because in them the rural exodus was more marked than elsewere, or the methods of farming were still antiquated, or the natural poverty of the sill made it very difficult for the farmer to meet the increasing cost of cubic ation or face the rise in wages. Sometimes the diminution is due to purely local causes, for example the sugar crisis in Aisne and the utilisation of the best arable land for the more remunerative cultivation of vineyards in

which there are large towns or large industrial centres, like Nord and Rhóneon important health resorts or watering places, like Alpes-Maritimes and Va_L

Hérault.

Altogether the decreases in rental value are comparatively unimportant; if the decreases in market price are more appreciable it is due to the reasons of general character already given.

(c) Meadows and Grass Land. — As is seen in the following table the

(c) Meadows and Grass Land. — As is seen in the following table, the average value of meadows and grass land, that showed a considerable rise in 1879, had fallen again in 1908 below the value reported in 1851.

•				Valuation of	_
			1851 frs.	1879 frs.	1908 — frs.
Average Rental Value po Average Market Price			73 2,256	97 2,961	65 1,878

The above variations may at the first glance, cause surprise in view of considerable extension of livestock improvement in recent years, it has led, as we have seen, to a considerable increase in the area of this np. It is, however explicable.

In fact the increasing scarcity and cost of labour and the increasconsumption of butchers' meat induced the farmers to give their ention to livestock improvement, and, consequently, to increase the area meadows and grass land. Of course for this purpose they chose in preence either areas of small value, particularly difficult to plough, or moord which has led to a lowering of the average values, as the meadows ns formed were most usually of inferior quality. Another reason is at in 1908 in the group of meadows large areas of grazing ground were duded, which at the date of the previous valuations, had been wrongly used as moorland, or in the group of areas variously cultivated. Elsehere the value of the natural meadows has diminished very appreciably ing to the competition of the continually increasing number of artificial radows which have the advantage of giving a greater yield per ha. and ing formed in the most suitable places. It is easy to understand that, der these conditions, the averages are even lower than in 1851 when the one was formed almost exclusively of excellent natural meadows.

on was formed almost excusively of excelent natural measures.

(d) Vineyards. — The average value of the vineyards for the whole France was, as follows:

Valuation af

				1851 frs.	1879 frs.	1908 frs.
Average Rental Val Average Market Price				69 2,067	130 2,96 8	76 2,033

The high values in 1879 were due to that year having been preceded a series of good seasons, both as regards the quality and quantity of e produce and to the extension of the railway system which in itself sured a ready sale. There were only 5 departments that showed pecrease in the average rental value, and 12 showing a decrease in the avermarket price, and the decrease was only considerable in Charente, where ephylloxera made its appearance in 1873, and where at the date of the luation only 13,226 ha. out of 100,000 ha. had been spared, and the vinerds were in consequence only estimated at the value of the bare soil. A comparison of the figures for 1908 with those for 1879 leads to just contrary results; the decrease has been general, except in Charente, ere the reconstitution of the vineyards has led to a rise in the averages, d in a few other departments, where there have been insignificant increases value (of the rental value in 6, and of the market price in $ar{8}$ departments). It in fact, more especially since 1879 that the phylloxera has made its ravs. It is true that, in many parts of the country, the vineyards have been med again, but the new vines planted have generally not given a wine to upare with that of the old French vines. Other diseases have also made

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their appearance in the vineyards (Blackrot, mildew, oïdium etc), and whether do not kill the plants, they reduce the quantity or deteriorate quality of the wine and in every case call for treatment constituting a weak heavy charge. On the other hand, the increasing cost of labour is especially felt by the wine farmers as their farms have constant need labourers and the employment of agricultural machinery is nearly imposible. Finally, in the years immediately preceding the last valuation, it value of the vineyards had been very considerably reduced, first on account of the low prices for wine, and then of bad harvests. These various commissances, of which account had to be taken for the valuation of use explain the fall in the average value of the vineyards; they have affected market price more than the rental value, owing to the uncertain life of the kind of farm and its irregular yield.

In spite of this, the average rental value of the group was still in 19 higher than in 1851 and the market price was almost the same as before

(e) Woodland belonging to Private Owners and to Incorporated Bodies at not to the State. — The average value of wooded holdings, which had no slightly in 1879, fell in 1908 to a little below what it was in 1851, as the following table shows:

								valuation of			
								1851 fra.	1879 frs.	1908 frs.	
Average	Rental	Value	per	ha.				20	23	17	
1,	Market	Price	,,	٠,				624	745	5 73	

Like the other kinds of holdings, the woodlands showed in 1879 anii crease of value due to the vogue enjoyed by landed property at that dat and to the new facilities of transport provided by the building of numeror railways. This increase of value was observed in all departments, exept for unimportant decreases of rental value in 12 and of market price in 11.

Since 1879, the crisis affecting landed property in general has m spared the wooded land. To tell the truth, it has affected the forest above all the resinous forests, only slightly.

But the copsewoods have suffered considerably. Their produce, which finds competitors in coal and gas both for industrial purposes and how use, has depreciated considerably, above all in the coal mining districts again, the use of the bark in tanneries has been gradually substituted by that of chemical preparations. The revenue from the cope woods has therefore fallen off and the reduction of the profits co-inciding with the rise in wages, the revenue in some cases has been reduced to almost not thing. This explains why, in spite of the still considerable value of the forests, the average values for woodland had declined considerably in 1908 We must, further, add that the new plantations, very numerous within the last few years, for which poor soil was largely utilised, (moor land, abandone vineyards and arable land etc.), have generally only given copsewood inferior quality, the low value of which contributes still further to reduct the averages.

These considerations also explain the decreases in values for the period 79-1908, in the departments generally; only 7 of them showing an creased rental value and 15 an increased market price. The only ineses of any importance are observed in Gironde and Landes where the intations along the sea coast are very thriving, in Jura and above all Vosges, where there are numerous very fine resinous forests.

(f) Moorland, Commons or Grazing Grounds and Other Uncultivated Land, he average rental values and market prices of this group were as follows at each valuation:

									Valuation of				
								1851	1879	rgc8			
								frs.	frs.	frs.			
Average			per					,5	6	4			
	Market	Price		٠	•	٠	•	155	207	159			

The average values of this group are but of secondary importance, , they only concern holdings the yield of which is in any case very small. or the rest, the variations necessarily of small importance, are less the re-It of economic conditions capable of affecting the rate of lease of unbuilt tholdings, than of the character of the land included in the group at each duation. This remark is confirmed by an examination of the situation of the nartments in which the averages have altered most: thus, in 1908, there e high averages shown for Deux-Sèvres and Manche, because commons a certain size, previously grouped with the meadows, have now been inuded in the moorland group, and for Meurthe-et-Moselle, because there we now been included in the group land on which there are deposits of ig of comparatively high value. On the other hand, the exclusion in 108 of grazing grounds, formerly counted as moorland, from this group, s caused the averages in Calvados, Doubs, Eure, Nièvre, Oise, Saône-etire and Seine-Inférieure to be lowered. However, in some departments in ich there are valuable moors especially in Bretagne, the variations in erates of lease explain the variations in the averages for this kind of iding.

* *

The new valuation of unbuilt on land of which we have just given account has been a work of quite exceptional importance. This great wernment undertaking will not have been carried out in vain and, in the rious data collected in the course of the enquiry, Parliament will find all elements on which to base the land reform which, reducing the burdens rural land, will realise the legitimate aspirations of the agricultural pulation.

ITALY.

THE ORGANIZATION OF A COMMUNAL DOMAIN IN SICILY. THE BOSCO SANTO PIETRO OF CALTAGIRONE.

The importance of the communal domains of the South of Italy are w known, and on the organization and economic value of one of them, the Bos Santo Pietro of Caltagirone, we are in a position to furnish the following information, reproduced from the report of the technical manager of the same results.

domain, Dr. Gaspare Barletta.

There is no aim constantly pursued in the management of commun forests; abuses are committed by the managers and the population, the neighbouring landowners make encroachments, the forests are subdivided, public customary rights are enforced; and the state of these forests is general bad and, in most cases, the yield from them is rather small. The condition of the public forest of Santo Pietro is somewhat of an exception. It is work pointing out, especially as important works for the regulation and in provement of the forest are now in course and researches are being making regard to the proper utilisation of the produce.

This forest, which belongs to the Commune of Caltagirone, was a part the ancient Barony of Petanasimo, that the Norman King, Roger II, b stowed on the inhabitants of Caltagirone in 1143, as a reward for the valour and loyalty. By decree of July 20th., 1911, the prefect of Catan declared the former fief a domain of the Commune of Caltagirone an ordered that 1,300 hectares should be divided in lots and distributed amon the poorer inhabitants of the commune.

At that date a work of organization and improvement of the portionle undivided was commenced. This portion covers an area of 3,330 has an consists principally of a forest of cork trees, the largest and most productive in Italy.

First of all the forest was divided into eight parts and each of thesestl divided into eight parcels. So there are 64 parcels, separated by fire belt

10 metres in breadth, or by roads or water courses.

This division makes it possible to prevent the spread of fires, and it has also served and still serves to make it easier to take stock of the trees, the arrange for the cuttings to be made, the improvements to be carried out, and the cultivation to be proceeded with, as well as to simplify the work of supervision.

The municipal council and its executive committee have the managent of the forest, under the chief supervision of the Department of Agriture, Industry and Commerce.

There is, further, a special commission occupying itself with the state conditions of the forest. It gives its opinion on all matters connected rewith. It is composed of the Mayor of Caltagirone, who is its president, by the prefect; the fourth, also nominated, is the director of the local yal Practical School of Agriculture.

The forest staff consists of a technical manager, 8 communal forest rds, 4 plantation guards and 6 workmen in charge of the fire belt. They lodged in barracks with large rooms for dormitories, an oilmill, room for the Red Cross men engaged in fighting malaria, a rural school of the children of the staff etc. The improvements carried out in connection with direct cultivation, under the guidance of the technical manager, we also necessited the building of many metayers' houses for workmen, the gulation of the streams etc. The problem of roads still remains to be solved to present there are only two: a provincial road crossing the whole forest that length of 14 kms. and another of only 5 kms. A third will shortly made, but others still will be required to facilitate the transport of the oduce, which is sold at auction.

In order definitely to decide what system is to be applied to the forest e commune has instructed the technical management to draft a plan for e purpose to serve as a basis for the operations in connection with it. is plan will consist of two parts, the first of which refers to utilisation d the other to improvements. We shall deal with them briefly.

(a) Utilisation — The San Pietro domain is a wood yielding utilisable.

(a) Utilisation — The San Pietro domain is a wood yielding utilisable ricultural forestry produce, such as cork, olives, pasture, timber and derwood.

The chief product is cork. Up to the present it has been stripped every ven years. In future the period will be extended to eight years, and the ik will be removed every year from the trees in one of the eight divisions. In the tree will be constant production, to the advantage of the industry the town.

A regular inventory has been taken of the cork oaks and they have en distinguished according to their diameters and vitality, while acunt was taken of their estimated production. There are about 100,000.

The cork is said on the trees in late of writing and the cork is said on the trees in late of writing and the cork is said on the trees in late of writing and the cork is said on the trees in late of writing and the cork is said on the trees in late of writing and the cork is said on the trees in late of writing and the cork is said on the cork in the cork in the cork is said on the cork in the cor

The cork is sold on the trees, in lots of entire parcels of the forest, th very severe rules as regards the precautions to be taken in order t to injure the trees.

Next, it must be remembered that there are also olive trees, about ,000 in number.

Grazing is a considerable source of revenue. And, in fact, the climate the district is mild and the herds like to come down from the mountain the forest to pass the severest months of winter there with their livestock. By pay 5.50 francs a month per head of horned cattle or per horse and centimes per goat or sheep and 1 fr. per pig. About April the dry period

generally commences and then the cattle return to the mountains in sear, of fresher and more luxuriant meadows.

In order to improve the pastures, from time to time, areas a ploughed and sown, above all where the wood is thinnest and whe reafforestation has already been begun.

Underwood is also abundant. It provides excellent fuel. It is divide into two classes: the first, consisting of the underwood of the division remote from the town, is sold every four years; the other satisfies the needs of the public, the inhabitants exercising their right to it in virtue the jus legnands (right of cutting wood). The public customary rights a also subject to special regulations intended to secure the forest from distriction.

The right to cut firewood is in fact only allowed in the case of bushe never in that of trees, and it is limited to special districts, established h the Municipal Executive Council. Contraventions are reported to the mayo who in his turn may denounce them to the legal authorities.

Besides the jus legnandi, the poorer inhabitants have other little facilities for advancing their domestic industries or obtaining the means in gaining something in their days of unemployment. They utilise a small plant, very common in the woods, the dwarf palm, with the leaves of which they manufacture various articles of use in agriculture and for domestic purposes: string, baskets, straps, hats, articles of esparto, brooms etc.

The women above all are occupied in this class of work. A woman can make two baskets a day, which brings in 1.60 frs., or 1 ½ kg. of thread and she can make 90 centimes in that way.

From the dwarf palm, vegetable horse hair can be made which is use to stuff mattresses. Those exercising customary rights also use the red to make all kinds of baskets.

In addition, they seek for mushrooms and truffles, collect herbs, and hunt game, which is very abundant in the forest.

As we see, this forest is a source of considerable revenue to the communant gives the poorer inhabitants a means of livelihood.

(b) Improvements — In the Bosco Santo Pietro, there are, however, many areas without trees and many trees of too great age which are gradually perishing. Thus the managers have decided on reafforesting these areas and replacing the old trees by young ones.

Reafforestation is above all effected by means of the direct sowing of acorns. But the ravines and the banks of the streams that run through the forest are reafforested with Canadian poplars. Between them conto oaks, acacias, cypresses etc. are planted.

In the work of reafforestation one plant has not been overlooked which for centuries has grown magnificently in the Bosco San Pietro: the olive, of which about 50,000 trees have been grafted. Thus a large olive wood has been formed, destined to become even larger and to produce an enormous quantity of olives, from which an oil can be derived, which, if suitably treated, will be an honour to the town producing it.

On the other hand, such a quantity of olive trees will provide work for dreds of labourers, who will thus be protected against unemployment, first cause of emigration.

Other steps taken by the commune are the foundation of nursery lens with a view to reafforestation and the sale of forest trees and fruit 5 to private persons.

In Sicily, plantations are very often made with plants from Central and hern Italy, and, consequently they very rarely succeed. It has efore been decided to make up for this, by means of nurseries, which only be extended when the studies in course with regard to the h for and utilisation of water have been terminated.

The above report concludes: What has been done at San Pietro and is still only planned is an encouraging beginning of the improve-

In fact, while the public customary rights have been preserved, though blated, at the same time a rapid reorganization of the forest and a ter system of exploiting its products have been adopted.

The water collected and led into canals, the olive trees grafted, the cork s more luxuriant, the imposition of suitable regulations, the timber up, the pastures improved, show altogether a large programme already thy realised and promising good things for the future.

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